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THE TRAINING OF CATHOLIC ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHERS IN ENGLAND

The population of England and Wales, which so far as elementary education is concerned may be regarded as a unit, is close upon forty millions. The number of Catholics amount to something over two and a quarter millions scattered through the eighteen dioceses of Britain, with rather more than half concentrated in the four dioceses of Westminster, Hexham and Newcastle, Liverpool, and Salford.

The number of public elementary schools—that is, schools at which education of an elementary kind is provided free for children up to the age of fourteen—is, in round figures, 20,000; and of these Catholics possess about 1,400, a number roughly in proportion to its population. Each religious denomination has to build its own schools, whereas schools in which the teaching is of an undenominational character are, speaking in a general sense, provided by the State. The number of children in attendance at public elementary schools is over five millions, of whom about 400,000 are Catholics.

There are eight training colleges for Catholic teachers in England and Wales: seven for women and one for men. This disparity in numbers is due mainly to the fact that public elementary schools are, from their very nature, compelled to employ far more women than men. Women must always be placed in charge of children under the age of seven; all girls' schools are taught by women; and women are employed in mixed schools and sometimes in boys' schools. It may be added that teaching as a profession is more popular with women than with men, for at least it has the great merit of comparative security, apart from the prospects of long holidays and of a fairly adequate pension

on retirement. According to the official returns of 1934, the latest figures to date, there were 47,060 men teachers in public elementary schools in England and Wales, and 123,848 women teachers. The proportion of women teachers in Catholic public elementary schools is much higher than this, for a great number of the schools are mixed schools, and some of these are staffed entirely by women.

There is a growing tendency, however, on the part of the managers of Catholic schools to appoint more men than hitherto on the staffs of every school where boys are taught. For it has long been recognized that after a certain age boys need the guidance and aid of men in matters of both discipline and moral conduct. Further, men are essential in these schools to take charge of physical training and organized games, which form a very important part of the English system of education. And again, only men can properly look after large numbers of boys on school outings, school journeys and educational visits. Of course, the substantial difference between men's and women's salaries is bound to have some effect on the selection of applicants for posts in mixed schools.

There are, all told, about 17,000 teachers-in-training distributed among 111 training colleges in England and Wales. These colleges are classed under four heads:

1. Twenty-two Training Departments of Universities and University Colleges, which usually provide a one-year course of post-graduate professional training.

2. Three Post-graduate Training Colleges which provide only post-graduate professional training.

3. Seventy-five Two-Year Training Colleges. These in the main provide a two-year course. Some of them in addition provide a three-year course, or a one-year course for graduate students or specially qualified students.

4. Eleven Training Colleges for Domestic Subjects which provide a two-year course for teachers of domestic subjects, and a three-year course by which students may become recognized teachers of domestic subjects and at the same time qualified to teach in public elementary schools.

Catholic training colleges belong to the third group. The number of Catholic students is about 1,800 women and 200 men approximately. Thus the proportion of women to men teachers

in Catholic public elementary schools may be taken as about four to one. At a rough estimate, the number of women teachers should prove to be about 10,400, the number of men about 2,400. This does not, however, take into account the number of Catholic teachers who are employed in undenominational schools, though these are largely recruited from Catholic students who have found their way into the training departments of universities or university colleges. It would be difficult to determine exactly the number of Catholic teachers employed in public elementary schools, for there is no machinery for keeping in touch with Catholic teachers in undenominational schools and there is no guarantee that all those trained in Catholic training colleges will be absorbed by Catholic schools. In fact, every year a small minority of students take appointments in schools other than Catholic schools, which are always, however, undenominational schools. But so well is the balance between supply and demand maintained by the Board of Education, which is the central education authority, that the number of Catholic teachers outside Catholic schools is comparatively small, certainly not more than a thousand in all. The Board of Education regulates the number of students entering all training colleges, and thus endeavors to avoid an overcrowding of the teaching profession.

Applicants for admission to training colleges are required to show evidence that they have had a good general education. The usual testimony to this effect is that they have spent a number of years in a secondary school, shown ability to cope with the work there and passed successfully, at the end of their course, one or more examinations. Certain training colleges, including the Catholic Men's Training College, will not consider the application of a student unless he has passed the matriculation examination of the University of London or its equivalent. These colleges have two things in view: the raising of the standard of education among entrants to training colleges and the preparation of candidates for university degrees. All students entering Catholic training colleges must take the prospective teacher's religious knowledge examination, an examination which is set by the joint diocesan inspectors of England and Wales. If they have not passed this examination, they are not eligible for admission, no matter what their other qualifications may be. Entrance does not entirely depend upon academic qualifications.

Each candidate is interviewed, and care is taken to select those who show the most promise. In the case of the men's college, St. Mary's College, Strawberry Hill, Middlesex, due consideration is given to the needs and claims of each diocese in England and Wales.

At many of the two-year training colleges there is a choice of courses of study. Students who possess a degree of a recognized university take a one-year course in professional subjects; namely, Principles of Education, Physical Training and Hygiene, to which must be added at least one other subject, Music, Drawing or Handcraft. Non-graduate students, who form the great majority of candidates for teaching in public elementary schools, take a two-year course partly in academic subjects, English, Mathematics, History, Geography, Science, and so on, from which they must choose not less than five subjects, and partly in professional subjects, all of which must be taken. In certain training colleges non-graduate students may pursue a four-year course, taking a university degree at the end of the third year and devoting the fourth year almost entirely, as is the case with graduate students, to professional subjects. Students who enter the training colleges after they have passed the intermediate examination of the University of London may during their first two years at college prepare for the degree examination of that university, which is the only one in the British Isles to grant degrees to external students, and in their third year study for the teacher's certificate examination. All graduates in training colleges may enter, if they so desire, for the teachers' diploma of the University of London. Lastly, there is the student, already of course matriculated, who studies for a university degree and the teacher's certificate concurrently. The work of this student has to be more intense than that of students taking other courses; but experience has shown that students derive very great benefit from this course and that they are not aware of any undue pressure. At the end of the first year he takes the intermediate examination of the University of London; at the end of the second he sits for the teacher's certificate examination; and in the third year, provided he has already passed these two examinations, he enters for two further examinations, one in Principles of Education, lectures in which he has attended during the year, and one for his university degree.

Of the 17,000 teachers-in-training during the session 1933-34, rather more than 60 per cent were following the two-year course. This does not mean that all the rest were graduates; for a considerable proportion of the remaining 40 per cent were women students in training colleges for domestic subjects. It should be observed, however, that the number of graduate teachers in public elementary schools has increased from 1.3 per cent in 1921 to 5.9 per cent in 1934. The actual number of graduate teachers on the staffs of public elementary schools amounts to 9,739 out of a total of 170,908; and the value of a university degree is receiving greater recognition year by year. Most of these graduate teachers, it must be admitted, have come from the training departments of universities and university colleges.

The Catholic men's training college and at least one Catholic women's training college provide students with opportunities of taking a degree of the University of London. But the number of students vary from year to year, sometimes increasing but more often than not showing a marked decrease, due not to any lack of ambition but because of economic conditions. At the Catholic men's training college nearly 30 per cent of the students leaving at the end of a given year have entered for the degree examination of the University of London. But for the past few years the number of men in this college taking a degree has been somewhat less than this.

The curriculum of a training college providing a two-year course is extensive. It allows of a wide range of choice of subjects and gives opportunities of advanced studies to the student who wishes to become a specialist teacher. All students must take the professional subjects; and in addition they must offer not less than five other subjects or, if they propose to take an advanced course in one or more subjects, not less than four subjects chosen from the following:

Group A.	*Group B.*
English Language and Literature.	Music.
History.	Drawing.
Geography.	Needlework and Handwork.
Mathematics.	Housecraft.
Science.	Gardening.
A Foreign Language.	Handwork (for men).
Economics.	

At least two subjects must be chosen from each group; but the candidate who takes a subject of advanced standard, and therefore only required to pass in four subjects altogether, may select two subjects from Group A, one subject from Group B, and a fourth subject from either Group A or Group B. Students may take as many as six subjects in the course, but not more than six; and all students are required, in the teacher's certificate examination, "to satisfy the examiners in a general English paper," the purpose of which is to test their competence in the interpretation and writing of English.

All subjects, with the exception of modern languages, housecraft and gardening, offer courses of ordinary as well as advanced standard; and the difference between the ordinary and advanced courses shows that the student who takes an advanced course is expected to be an individual of markedly finer caliber than a student following an ordinary course. A comparison of the advanced and ordinary courses in English will illustrate this.

Speaking generally, the advanced course in any subject is higher in standard and wider in scope than the course in the same subject for the intermediate examination of the University of London; and the amount of really arduous work involved is considerably more than in the ordinary course. Yet so wide is the choice of subjects that all but comparatively few students take an advanced course in one or more subjects.

Apart, then, from the professional subjects, the course of studies in the two-year training colleges is, broadly, a continuation of the work done in the secondary schools. But the true function of the training college is to train its students to teach. For this purpose the training college arranges that all students teach under its supervision, for periods totaling not less than twelve weeks, in public elementary schools; and that they visit, and write observations upon the work in, other types of school, special schools, infant and nursery schools, etc. There are nearly always a few students who have taught in public elementary schools before entering college. These may have been pupil-teachers, that is, students who "between the ages of sixteen and eighteen have received training in teaching as well as instruction in the ordinary academic subjects essential for the examination qualifying for entrance to a training college"; or they may have been student teachers, who are described in official documents as

"intending teachers who have received continuous education in secondary schools up to the age of seventeen and have passed the examination qualifying for admission to a training college." Such students are required to do only six weeks' practical teaching. Each period of school practice, as it is commonly termed, is of three weeks' duration; and no more than one period occurs in any one term. Lectures at college are always suspended during school practice so that students can devote their entire energy to the work of teaching, the preparation of lessons and the study of school organization and method. At the end of the final period of school practice, students are examined in practical teaching by inspectors of the Board of Education.

Formerly, the teacher's certificate examination was conducted by the Board of Education. Now it is in the hands of the universities. Training colleges more or less in the same area are formed into groups and affiliated to local universities or university colleges for the purposes of examination; the training college lecturers become examiners in their own subjects, setting the papers in conjunction with university examiners; then there are university moderators whose business it is to see that the examinations and the work of examiners connected with their universities are carefully standardized; and, finally, a central advisory committee for the certification of teachers to maintain a uniform standard of examination throughout the whole of England and Wales. St. Mary's Training College, Newcastle, is affiliated to the University of Durham; the Catholic Training College, Hull, to the University of Leeds; Mount Pleasant Training College, Liverpool, and Salford Training College to the Universities of Manchester and Liverpool, grouped as one for the purposes of examining Training College students; Selly Park Training College to the University of Birmingham; the Catholic Training College, Southampton, to Southampton University College; and St. Charles' Training College, Kensington, London, and St. Mary's College, Strawberry Hill, Middlesex, to the University of London. Thus the eight Catholic training colleges are associated with six university institutions, differently situated and of rather different traditions. A liaison between each university and its group of training colleges is maintained by a body called the Training Colleges Delegacy on which the Board of Education, the university and the training college group are represented.

The Board of Education still reserves to itself the inspection of the practical teaching of all students-in-training, it examines them as to their general competency to teach during their first or probationary year, and has the power to recommend and insist upon the dismissal of a teacher whose work has been found persistently unsatisfactory.

In all Catholic training colleges students are required during their period of training to take an advanced course in Religious Doctrine, and to teach the subject in local Catholic schools under the supervision of the college authorities. Two written examinations are held each year, usually one at Christmas and one at Easter; and at the end of the year in which they are taking the teacher's certificate examination they are expected to pass a practical examination in the teaching of Christian Doctrine to the satisfaction of the diocesan inspectors. The syllabus of religious instruction at the Catholic men's training college is. briefly, as follows:

First Year:

Outline of Apologetics stressing Scripture, Divinity of Christ, Foundation of the Church, Identification of the True Church, the Pope and Infallibility.

A Gospel. The Use of the Missal.

Second Year:

Exposition of Catholic Doctrine.
Outlines of Liturgy.
Principles guiding Church Music.
Outline of Church History.
A Gospel.

Three hours a week are given to lectures on this course, which ordinarily covers a period of two years.

The actual cost of training teachers for public elementary schools is about £120 a year for each resident student-in-training, a sum which is borne partly by the student and partly by the Board of Education. For men students the Board of Education pays training college authorities £43 towards maintenance and £28 towards tuition; for women £34 and £26 respectively. The student finds the rest. Women's fees are usually less than those of men. All students have to pay the same amounts as regards examination and registration fees; but these do not come to much more than about £5. Occasionally grants or loans are made by certain bodies to students who cannot afford the cost of training,

but who are otherwise well qualified and well fitted for the work of teaching.

As a rule, only trained certificated teachers are employed in public elementary schools. Those who fail to pass the teacher's certificate examination are often employed temporarily until, after not more than two further attempts, they are successful in obtaining the necessary certificate. In the case of ultimate failure, which occurs rarely, they either abandon the teaching profession altogether or enter the schools as uncertificated teachers at salaries considerably lower than that of the trained certificated teacher.

The remuneration of teachers in public elementary schools is considerably in advance of what it was twenty years ago, a circumstance that has, noticeably, helped to raise the status of the teacher, and to attract to the teaching profession men and women of undoubted ability. It is much lower, however, than that of teachers in secondary schools, though the latter are not bound to hold any qualification whatever as to ability in practical teaching. The minimum salary for assistant men teachers in public elementary schools is, on the average, about £180 per annum, rising by yearly increments of £12 to about £400 per annum. Assistant women teachers begin at £160 a year, approximately, and eventually reach about £320 a year by annual increments of £9. The maximum salaries for head teachers depend mainly upon the size, as regards numbers in attendance, of the school. The highest obtainable are, roughly, £600 for men and £480 for women. This difference between the salaries of men and women teachers cannot but have something to do with the greater employment of women in public elementary schools.

At the present time Catholics are less concerned about the training of teachers which is undeniably on a sound footing than about the supply of Catholic schools which is hardly adequate for the number of Catholic children of school age. It is hoped that the new Education Bill which the Government is now considering will find a solution to the problem, whereby the State will provide at least part of the money necessary for the building of new Catholic schools.

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THE CONDITIONS OF PROGRESS IN PRIMARY READING

The teaching of reading remains the principal responsibility of first grade teachers despite radical innovations in many features of instruction in the primary grades. The importance of reading is seldom, if ever, contested, and most authorities agree that effective instruction in reading in the primary grades is essential for further growth of the skills and abilities which reading involves. Failure produces many obstacles to subsequent learning not only in errors of word recognition, deficiency in specific skills such as those required by word perception, but also in the distaste for reading which acts as an additional barrier to the use of reading both in and out of school. The problems presented by the difficulties of teaching reading in the first grade have received considerable recognition, but, in spite of the improved methods of teaching and the more thorough understanding of the reading process, failures remain numerous and teachers are still confronted with many difficulties that they are unable to cope with. It has been estimated that at least 20 per cent of first grade pupils fail to be promoted at the end of the year and that over 95 per cent of the failures are due to failure to learn to read. It may be that the task demands a greater degree of mental maturity than that possessed by many first grade entrants and that it would be advisable for this reason to postpone the teaching of reading until the required maturity has been attained. It has been suggested that reading be postponed until the second or third grade, but, as this recommendation has also been advanced in connection with other subjects, it seems to be more or less an evasion of the difficulty rather than a last resort compelled by circumstances that cannot otherwise be overcome. It cannot be said that all possibilities have been explored, the most effective methods rigidly defined, and the most appropriate materials devised. Until further improvements in methods of teaching and the materials of instruction have been exhausted, it would seem unwise to postpone instruction in reading merely because it is admittedly a difficult task. It will likely remain difficult, especially as the delay may involve the development of inter-

fering habits of word perception among those who attempt to learn whether they are taught or not.

To learn to read is practically synonymous in the minds of many children with going to school. They aspire to be able to read for themselves, and many of them do acquire the ability to recognize some letters and a few words before entering school at all. But the agitation on behalf of postponing reading instruction has not gained much support and the more important task is the discovery of means of improving the teaching of reading, of diagnosing causes of failure, and providing remedial instruction or special methods for those who are in danger of failing before failure has actually occurred. A better understanding of the abilities required and the most effective means of supplying them with tasks of suitable difficulty may do much to reduce the burdens of teaching reading. It has been shown repeatedly that the vocabulary content of primary reading materials is not well adapted to children's needs. There is considerable evidence that methods of teaching are in many cases poorly adapted to the nature of the task of learning to read. Other difficulties are almost too numerous to mention, such as overcrowded classrooms, inadequately trained teachers, and general methods of instruction that are more novel than valuable. To all these must be added the limited experience and ability of the children themselves. Reading is an exceedingly complex task that involves numerous abilities and the cooperation of such conditions as experience, interest, and freedom from conflicting habits such as those arising from the use of a foreign language in the home. Studies of reading-readiness have revealed the rôles played by some of these factors and indirectly suggested the part played by those that have not been subjected to appraisal. A knowledge of the conditions of progress in primary reading will assist in understanding the difficulties that pupils encounter and in defining appropriate methods of instruction for all who are able to profit from the experience which the first grade provides. Several studies show that known variables have a correlation of approximately 0.75 with progress in reading in the first grade. This indicates that other factors are of at least as much importance as those contributing to this correlation. Some of the unmeasured factors can be tentatively identified but the exact rôle they play can only be surmised. It is probable that changed

methods of instruction might alter the relationship between a composite of abilities and reading progress by utilizing to a greater extent the children's abilities and enabling them to overcome the handicaps imposed by various conditions.

Studies of the nature of reading in the higher grades have shown that such abilities as general intelligence, visual perception, and association are among the major elements in reading performance. Such observations suggest the nature of the abilities that function in the learning of primary reading. Intelligence is usually regarded as the principal factor in learning to read, and the correlations seem to confirm most estimates of its importance. It is to be noted, however, that such correlations indicate the relationship between intelligence plus all other abilities correlated with intelligence and reading rather than between reading and intelligence alone. The amount of intelligence is a determining factor in the acquisition of such experiences as may serve to enable the child to assimilate meanings and to develop an oral vocabulary of sufficient scope to permit him to recognize words readily. Similarly, attention and intelligence are correlated. Thus any measure of intelligence obtained from the ordinary tests is at the same time a measure of many abilities rather than of abstract thinking exclusively. While observed correlations between reading and intelligence are useful in denoting the value of measures of intelligence as forecasts of progress in reading, such correlations do not define the rôle of any single factor or permit evaluating the specific abilities entering into the learning of reading.

Morphett and Washburne endeavored to determine the minimum mental age associated with satisfactory reading progress in the first grade (10). In the Winnetka schools a child must know at least 139 sight words and a certain number of "progress steps" to be promoted to the second grade. Their investigation used as the criteria of satisfactory progress the recognition of at least 37 sight words and thirteen progress steps by February. The tests used were the Stanford Revision and the Detroit First-Grade Intelligence Test. The correlations between the various measures of intelligence and the reading scores are given in Table 1.

These correlations are typical of those reported by others. The authors calculated the percentages of children of each mental

age who made satisfactory reading progress as defined above. The results are shown in Table 2. The mental ages are those obtained by the children at the time of their entrance into the first grade in September. It will be observed that less than half of the children whose mental ages were below 6 years and 6 months made "satisfactory" reading progress, whereas 78 per cent of the children whose mental ages on the Detroit Test were more than 6 years and 6 months accomplished what the teachers

TABLE 1.—*Correlations between Achievement in Reading of 141 First-Grade Children and Their Intelligence as Measured by Detroit Test and Stanford-Binet Test.* (Morphett and Washburne, 10, p. 498.)

Factors Correlated	*Detroit Test*	*Stanford-Binet Test*
Sight-word score and mental age	.65	.58
Sight-word score and average of mental and chronological ages as of Sept. 1, 1928	.57	.49
Sight-word score and intelligence quotient	.56	.54
Reading progress and mental age	.59	.51
Reading progress and average of mental and chronological age as of Sept. 1, 1928	.55	.49
Reading progress and intelligence quotient	.50	.53

TABLE 2.—*Number of Children of Each Mental Age and Percentage Making Satisfactory Reading Progress.* (Morphett and Washburn, 10, p. 498.)

Mental Age in Years and Months	*Number of Children*		*Percentage Making Satisfactory Reading Progress*	
	Detroit Test	*Stanford-Binet*	*Detroit Test*	*Stanford-Binet Test*
4-5 to 4-11	1	1	..	..
5-0 to 5-5	12	1	0	..
5-6 to 5-11	12	12	0	8
6-0 to 6-5	17	22	47	41
6-6 to 6-11	23	38	78	68
7-0 to 7-5	29	31	79	68
7-6 to 7-11	16	15	75	87
8-0 to 8-5	7	11	..	82
8-6 to 9-0	8	2	..	..

regarded as acceptable progress. These results were confirmed by tests given to another group at the end of the year. The final tests included one in the recognition of words and an oral-reading test, the Gray Check Test. Table 3 shows the numbers and per-

TABLE 3.—*Number of Children of Each Mental Age and Percentage Making Satisfactory Sight-Word Scores and Oral-Reading Scores.* (Morphett and Washburne, 10, p. 501.)

*Mental Age in Years and Months**	*Number of Children*		*Percentage Making Satisfactory Progress*	
	Sight-Word Test	*Oral-Reading Test*	*Sight-Word Test*	*Oral-Reading Test*
5-0 to 5-5	1	0	..	..
5-6 to 5-11	10	9	..	..
6-0 to 6-5	25	24	64	58
6-6 to 6-11	23	23	87	83
7-0 to 7-5	23	23	87	91
7-6 to 7-11	12	12	83	92
8-0 to 8-5	5	5	..	..
8-6 to 9-0	1	1	..	..

* Average of scores on Detroit test and Pintner-Cunningham test.

centages of children at each mental-age interval who made satisfactory scores. On the bases of these results with two different groups of children, Morphett and Washburne recommended that the teaching of reading be postponed until children reach a mental level of six and a half years. In this way, they stated, teachers can decrease greatly the chances of failure and discouragement.

Valuable as these results are, they may be said to apply only under rather limited conditions. The method of teaching exerts some influence as does the home background of the children. Nevertheless, the results are confirmed by Rabold's observation (11) that practically all children having mental ages of 6 years and 4 months were promoted, i.e., made normal progress in reading in the first grade. Apparently the critical point in intelligence is approximately six and a half years.

Since a large proportion of the pupils entering the first grade do not have a mental age of six and a half years, the question immediately arises of what provisions should be made for those who are not sufficiently mature for the task. It would seem clear that attempts to teach such children to read should be postponed until their intelligence and experience mature sufficiently to enable them to attack the difficulties with considerable chance of success. To ignore their immaturity will only lead to failure and discouragement in many cases. When pupils are grouped ac-

cording to ability, special provisions for such children will not occasion any unusual difficulty. In classes not sectioned according to ability, the situation presents rather serious difficulties. The best procedure to adopt is by no means well defined. The development of the necessary maturity is almost entirely an outcome of inner potentialities that are modified but slightly, if at all, by the type and amount of training which children receive. There can be very little hastening of the development of such abilities. Other forms of training will have to be substituted and many of these undoubtedly can facilitate the learning to read later by providing children with such experiences as may be useful in assimilating meanings and developing habits of correct enunciation.

While intelligence is the principal factor in reading, it is by no means the only factor. Some children whose mental ages are more than six and a half years fail to make satisfactory progress, and a few, whose mental development is less than the suggested minimum, succeed. Other factors play some part, probably in varying measures according to the method of teaching used and the means children adopt to recognize words. Several studies of reading-readiness have defined some of the specific abilities and evaluated other conditions of progress, but it is significant that none of the estimates of reading aptitude yield correlations with reading progress in excess of 0.75 or so. Obviously, all the conditions of learning to read have not been identified even when methods of teaching and other factors are held constant. Studies of specific abilities have, however, improved greatly the accuracy of the estimates over that possible when intelligence alone is used as the measure of reading-readiness.

Several investigations of the nature of reading ability in the higher grades have found that visual perception is an important factor in reading. Smith (15) found a correlation of .87 between word recognition and ability to match lower case letters. This extremely high correlation is difficult to interpret. Intelligence is undoubtedly responsible for part of the correlation. But the main issue is whether the ability to match letters is the cause or the result of the twelve weeks of instruction in reading that the pupils had received. Smith points out that the recognition of words is impossible without identification of small similarities

and differences in the contour of words. The perception of words cannot be the apprehension of the word as a whole and be accurate at the same time since many words differ from others only in minute features such as a single letter. It would be important to know the correlation between such ability measured before any instruction had been given and subsequent progress in learning to read. Furthermore, it suggests that training in distinguishing letters may be advantageously given before much instruction is given in the recognition of words as wholes. The word-whole method of recognizing words has led to inferences which are not supported by psychological research although it is claimed that such a method is the only adequate one of apprehending words.

One of the valuable studies of reading-readiness is that of Deputy (3) whose results are based on the performances of 103 children in the first grade, approximately one half of whom had had some kindergarten training. These pupils were given the Pintner-Cunningham intelligence test and four tests which Deputy devised for his study. The four tests were:

1. Word selection: Each of the 48 items consisted of groups of letters or words. The children attempted to match a group of words or letters with an identical group in the list shown.

2. Visual-auditory association. This consisted in associating spoken words with their visual forms.

3. Visual-visual association: The children were shown cards on each of which there was a picture of an object and its name. The task was to recognize the words when they were shown alone later. The test closely approaches the normal activity of learning to recognize words.

4. Content comprehension: The children repeated as much as they could remember of a story that had been read to them.

The correlations of these tests with reading as measured by several tests and the intercorrelations among the aptitude tests are shown in Table 4. The correlation between intelligence and reading achievement is .70. Combining all the aptitude tests to the best advantage yields a multiple correlation with reading of .75. It is noteworthy that the addition of the four specific tests to intelligence raises the correlation only by .05. While this increase is statistically more significant than it seems, it is clear that unmeasured factors are exerting considerable influence

on reading progress. The combination of the four tests correlated .66 with reading, compared with .70 for reading and intelligence. It would thus appear that intelligence alone has higher correlation with reading than can be derived from combinations of the four tests that Deputy devised. If the maximum correlation between measurable abilities and reading is approximately .75, the remaining factors must be at least as important as those measured and probably more important although they are secondary to ability. It is only through ability that learning is effected but the conditioning factors in the use of abilities may apparently produce greater variability in performance than can be attributed to intelligence among groups of first grade pupils.

An important study by Lee, Clark, and Lee (6) obtained results similar to those secured by Deputy. On the basis of several criteria they selected four tests which have been incorporated into the Lee-Clark Reading Readiness Test (19). The

TABLE 4.—*Intercorrelations of Tests of Reading Aptitude and Achievement.* (Deputy, 3.)

	Pintner-Cunningham	*Visual-Visual*	*Word Selection*	*Visual-Auditory*	*Content Comprehension*
Composite of three reading tests	.70	.52	.49	.39	.37
Pintner-Cunningham		.51	.53	.36	.36
Visual-visual association test			.35	.41	.21
Word selection test				.28	.21
Visual-auditory association test					.26

correlations of this test with reading progress as measured by various primary reading tests are given in Table 5. The highest correlation is .68, obtained from the scores of a group all of whom had had some kindergarten experience. The authors do not report the correlation between reading and a combination of the scores on their reading test and an intelligence test. Presumably, such a correlation would be higher than the others. Deputy obtained about the same correlation for his specific tests with reading as Lee, Clark, and Lee report for their tests, .66.

Monroe obtained a correlation of .75 between reading achievement and the scores on her Reading Aptitude Tests (21). This was the same as Deputy obtained for his battery of tests, including an intelligence test. No data are available to ascertain what relationship would be forthcoming between reading and a combi-

nation of Monroe's tests and an intelligence test, each properly weighted. Monroe's tests include the following:

1. Visual Test 1. Memory of orientation of forms.
2. Visual Test 2. Ocular-motor control and attention.
3. Visual Test 3. Memory of figures.
4. Motor Test 1. Speed of precise movement.
5. Motor Test 2. Steadiness of movement.
6. Auditory Test 1. Word-discrimination.
7. Auditory Test 2. Sound-blending.
8. Language Test 1. Vocabulary.
9. Auditory Test 3. Auditory memory.
10. Articulation Test 1. Reproduction.
11. Articulation Test 2. Speed of pronouncing a word.
12. Language Test 2. Classification. Naming animals, things to eat, and toys.
13. Language Test 3. Sentence-length.
14. Motor Test 3. Writing name.
15. Three laterality tests.

Since at least some of these tests are similar to those commonly included in group intelligence tests for young children, it is unlikely that Monroe's correlations would be increased appreciably

TABLE 5.—*Correlations Illustrating the Predictive Value of the Lee-Clark Reading Readiness Test.* (Lee, Clark, and Lee, 6, p. 659.)

Factors Correlated	*Number of Pupils*	*Correlation*
Lee-Clark Reading Readiness Test and Lee-Clark Reading Test, Primer	164	.49
Mental age on Detroit First-Grade Intelligence Test and Lee-Clark Reading Test, Primer	164	.40
Intelligence quotient on Detroit First-Grade Intelligence Test and Lee-Clark Reading Test, Primer	164	.41
Lee-Clark Reading Readiness Test and Gates Silent Reading Tests, Types 1, 2, and 3	100	.54
Pintner-Cunningham Primary Mental Test and Gates Silent Reading Tests, Types 1, 2, and 3	100	.39
Lee-Clark Reading Readiness Test and Lee-Clark Reading Test, Primer (with groups of pupils all of whom had kindergarten experience)	92	.68

by the addition of an intelligence test to the measures that Monroe has assembled. The diagnostic value of Monroe's tests is one of their very desirable features.

These several studies, employing different tests, are in agreement regarding the limit of prediction of reading-readiness. The

available tests are useful improvements over intelligence tests alone as measures of reading aptitude. Although complete data are not available regarding the roles of specific factors, Monroe's results seem to indicate that the most important specific abilities are those measured by her auditory, visual, articulation, motor and language tests in the order named. Since these abilities are positively correlated with one another, it is impossible to determine the net influence of each in contributing to the complex of abilities involved in learning to read.

It is widely recognized that children's behavior, even in regard to specific situations, is conditioned by many experiences, attitudes and abilities. It is impossible to evaluate each of these in connection with progress in reading in the first grade. Kindergarten training is but one of the many. MacLatchy's study (7) shows that, when intelligence is eliminated as a factor in school progress, there is no difference between the achievement of children who have had and those who have not had kindergarten training. The value of kindergarten training has been largely in effecting an adjustment of the child to school conditions. With more or less informal methods in the first grade, the adjustment does not involve the same problem that formerly occasioned much concern. Such results, of course, do not mean that kindergarten training is devoid of value nor that some children are not helped by it when learning to read, but as a major factor affecting progress in reading, kindergarten training may be disregarded in any evaluation of the conditions affecting progress in reading.

The learning of reading assumes various kinds of experience which function both in the sensory apprehension of word forms and in providing means of assimilating new ideas. The learning of reading depends also on the child's language development. All of these factors are dependent on others and while some of them are involved in such measures of reading-readiness as those prepared by Monroe, the others are important chiefly when unusual conditions have handicapped their development. Sensory defects, visual and auditory, are obstacles especially when the method of teaching emphasizes the form of sense presentation that involves the impediment. On the other hand, unusual sensory acuity would hardly constitute an important asset.

The importance of pre-school language development is readily appreciated from the type of instruction furnished in the first grade and the nature of the reading process itself. Language conflicts are usually credited with major importance as sources of reading disability. Woolf (17) found that the correlations between reading and intelligence were much lower for children with a foreign language background than for other children. Smith (14) has shown that children learning two languages have lower reading scores than those studying one, but the problem of the language background of children as it affects their progress in reading has not been adequately studied.

Another phase of experience is that of the familiarity with letters and words which children have acquired either through games or through some home training before entering school. The widespread opposition of teachers to home-instruction in reading is readily appreciated, but there is no evidence permitting an evaluation of such training as some children receive in pre-school reading. It may be easily surmised that the kind and amount of training as well as the ability of the child will have much to do with whether the training aids or hinders the learning of reading.

One of the most obvious conclusions from the study of human behavior is that it is so complex that it can never be fully analyzed. We can only define the average role played by a considerable number of factors, but the factors concerned may have exceptional influence in individual cases, thus precluding any psychological laws of behavior comparable to those formulated by the natural sciences. Emotional conditions may offset the aptitude furnished by abilities and the degree of effort may fluctuate so greatly that predictions can never be absolutely accurate. It seems reasonable to suppose that measures of aptitude can be so improved and extended that accurate determinations can be made of those who should succeed, but there will necessarily be many cases where unpredictable factors will cause discrepancies between promise and fulfillment.

In addition to their data furnished by objective tests, Lee, Clark, and Lee compiled twenty questions and ranked them according to the degree to which they discriminated between the best and the poorest readers. The ratings were made at the end of the kindergarten year, while the measures of reading

achievement were tests given at the end of the first semester. The items and their rank value are listed in the following table.

TABLE 6.—*Twenty Items in a Rating Scale for Use of Kindergarten Teachers Ranked According to Degree of Discrimination between Pupils Who in First Grade Were the Best and the Poorest Readers.* (Lee, Clark, and Lee, 6, p. 663.)

Item	*Rank*
What is the apparent home background of the pupil?	1
Is his physical vigor and efficiency good?	2
Does he have books for use at home?	3
Is his attention steady?	4½
Does he show interest in signs, labels, and books?	4½
Is he ready to learn to read?	7
Does he think things out for himself?	7
Is much encouragement needed for effective work?	7
Does he follow directions well?	9
Has he a good vocabulary?	10½
Is he critical of his own work and responses?	10½
Is he interested in stories that are told?	13½
Does he get along with other children?	13½
Does he work on to completion of an assigned task?	13½
Does he tell stories well?	13½
Is he able to select material and ideas and adapt them to his use?	16
Is he a discipline problem?	17
To which reaction type does he belong?	18
Is he bashful or shy?	19
Is his health good?	20

The correlation between teachers' ratings on the first ten items of the above list and reading achievement was only .45, whereas the reading aptitude test had a correlation of .68 with reading progress for the same group of children. It is interesting to note that the question, "Is he ready to learn to read?" was tied with two other questions for sixth place. Teachers' measures of children's physical efficiency are more valid than their judgments of reading readiness as forecasts of progress in reading. The authors found some instances in which the correlations between the ratings and success in reading were negative. In view of these considerations, it is obviously unnecessary to consider at length the factors which teachers deem important as conditions of progress in reading. First grade teachers' judgments depend on their acquaintance with the children. What is needed is some measure that will prove dependable when used at the time that children enter the first grade.

This review is confined to children's traits in their relation to the learning of primary reading. Their actual progress depends on many other conditions as well such as the method employed, the textbook and other materials used, the size of

the class, and many other features of the total situation in which the learning is centered. It is clear that there are rich opportunities for valuable research in connection with the problem of reading-readiness. The solution of some of them will affect others, such as those connected with the most suitable method of imparting instruction in this subject.

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THE DEVELOPMENT OF ARITHMETIC AS A SCHOOL SUBJECT

EUROPEAN BACKGROUND

The science of number is one of the purest products of human thought. The exactness of its ideas, the refinement of its principles, and the certitude of its deductions attracted, at a very early period in human history, the attention of the rarest and most reflective minds. The subject has come down to us adorned with the offerings and the contributions of thousands of intellects. Its various principles and processes are the result of the subtle mind of the Hindu, the classic mind of the Greek, and the practical mind of the European.

As a science, arithmetic dates back to the earliest days of antiquity; as a school subject it is relatively young. Until the time of the Renaissance, arithmetic was largely a concern only of the most brilliant scholar and thriving merchant. In ancient Greece the subject was divided into two distinct phases. That part dealing with numerical calculation was known as *logistic*; that dealing with the pure science of number was called *arithmetic*, a subject having nothing to do with addition, subtraction, multiplication, or division and which excluded all applications to trade or business. Arithmetic as such was included only in the education of the philosopher and man of culture. It considered such questions as the factorability of numbers, the evolution and involution of roots and powers, progressions, and series topics having little or no practical value in real life. Theoretic arithmetic of this sort was believed to be an essential in producing mental efficiency.

With the invention of printing and the development of commercial activity which prevailed throughout Europe in the sixteenth century, a remarkable stimulus was given to the practical aspect of arithmetic. This period marks a number of significant transitions. Manuscript arithmetics were replaced by printed books; Roman numerals yielded to Hindu or Arabic characters; counters disappeared in favor of figures; arithmetics formerly written only in Latin were translated into the vernacular. Thus, the subject became the possession of the common people.

The subject matter of arithmetic during the Renaissance shows that this was the most important period in perfecting the processes of present day arithmetic with Arabic numerals. It was, as a matter of fact, at this time that the four fundamental operations reached the very height of their development. From that time to this, little, except for such particulars as insurance, exchange, compound interest, stocks, and bonds, has been added to the arithmetic curriculum. There are very few problems in modern arithmetic whose types were not foreshadowed in some form in the sixteenth century (4).

The subject did not at this time, however, succeed in working its way into the lower or elementary levels of education. The works of Euclid, Ptolemy, and Archimedes found a place among the scholars of the times, and gradually the science of number was introduced into the Latin or secondary schools whose main function was the teaching of the classics. Since the study of Latin consumed most of the time, arithmetical instruction was very meager and, as a rule, it was postponed until the very last thing in the student's training.

Arithmetic tests in the Latin schools were written by the foremost scholars of philosophy, medicine, science, and engineering. As may well be expected, the contents dealt almost exclusively with the theory of numbers, a few precise definitions, and examples that had no direct relation to the practical affairs of life. The complete lack of commercial problems and the lack of practice exercises in the texts of this period indicate that arithmetic was not taught in the Latin schools for any utilitarian purpose.

Merchants, tradesmen, and those engaged in business received some instruction in practical arithmetic through the efforts of the Hanseatic League. This league, though organized in the thirteenth century for the purpose of protecting the trade routes of importance to certain cities, soon took on other functions for the improvement of commerce, among which was the establishment of the so-called *Rechen Schulen* or *Reckoning Schools*. These schools were born of necessity in Germany, Italy, Holland, and France, for merchants finding themselves incapable of coping with the rapid development of commerce were obliged to employ assistants for the purpose of giving instruction in the art of reckoning. These assistants, commonly called *Rechenmeistern*

or *Reckoning masters*, often acted as town clerks, inspectors of weights and measures, notaries, and sometimes as surveyors. In their capacity as teachers, the reckoning masters frequently held a complete monopoly on the secular instruction in the town, and by the end of the sixteenth century they had become such an important factor that they were often called upon to supplement the work of the Latin schools. Gradually the *rechenmeistern* opened schools of their own, organized themselves into guilds, and became largely responsible for keeping arithmetic instruction out of the common schools until it was introduced by Pestalozzi in the nineteenth century.

The function of the reckoning school was to teach business forms and the solution of commercial problems; in other words, it aimed at preparing pupils for efficiency in commercial and industrial life. Although arithmetic was the chief subject in the curriculum, it was not the sole branch of study. Instruction also included such subjects as a study of the vernacular, writing, and sometimes even Latin. In contrast to the Grammar or Latin School, language held only a place of secondary importance.

Individual instruction from a textbook was the general method of teaching. The content of these arithmetics was of a purely practical nature. Little or no attention was given to theory. Definitions and numbers, larger than those commonly used in business, processes and number relations, were reduced only to those used in solving commercial problems. Fundamental operations were stated dogmatically and few or no attempts were made to grade them into steps. The end sought was mere computational skill, consequently subject-matter and methods tended only towards the realization of this purpose.

This century of wide commercial growth was followed by one of great political expansion. In the seventeenth century all Europe turned eyes towards the New World. Colonization developed rapidly, schools were established, and a new period in arithmetical study ensued.

THE ARITHMETIC CURRICULUM IN COLONIAL AMERICA

Since early settlers in this country had grown to maturity in an European environment, their attitudes and ideas regarding education in general and arithmetic in particular were colored and influenced by the traditions and ideals of the Old World.

Those who had come from great commercial centers tended to regard the study of arithmetic not only as useful, but as absolutely necessary in the education of every boy. The aristocracy, on the other hand, looked upon the subject as "vile and common," the accomplishment of artisans, tradesmen, and others "who bore no signs of nobility."

The same two types of schools, Latin or Grammar, and Reckoning or Writing, were very early established in the colonies. The schools of New England, as might well be expected, were dominantly classical and in the curriculum of these schools the classics formed the main subjects of instruction. Writing and parsing ranked next in importance. Even in the common schools of New England, arithmetic was not considered important. Religion, reading, spelling, and writing comprised practically the entire course of study. Warren Burton (2) in his interesting treatise on the district school says that during this early period the child entered school at the age of three and a half, when he was put into the ABC class. At the age of four and a half he was able to read, at the age of seven he began to write, and at the age of twelve he entered upon the study of arithmetic. By the time the child was fourteen he was supposed to have ciphered through the *rule of three* and was then believed to have had enough arithmetic to serve the common purposes of life.

The General Court of Massachusetts in 1642 and again in 1647 emphasized the perpetuation of religion as the dominant aim of all education, and although mention was made of reading and writing, nothing was said of arithmetic. A similar law passed in Connecticut during the same year also completely disregarded the study of arithmetic. (8)

Besides the Latin and common schools, there were other facilities for training in numbers. Writing schools, in which young children between the ages of seven and fourteen received instruction in writing and arithmetic were established in Boston, Salem, Plymouth, and other commercial centers. In fact a school of this type was founded in Plymouth as early as 1635. Similar schools were later established in practically every New England town. (8)

In addition to these two types of so-called "public schools," there were also private schools, one a writing school in which

instruction in writing and accounting was given to those who desired such training. Frequently students from the Latin or Grammar schools in which arithmetic was not taught attended the private writing school in the evenings. The other private school, commonly known as the "Dame School," was for very young children. Here the pupils at a very early age received instruction in the simplest rudiments of arithmetic, generally extending as far as the multiplication tables through twelve.

In no case, however, was elementary education, in either the public or private schools of the period, free in the same sense as it is today. Pupils paid according to the studies taken. These tuition rates varied in different localities. Small (9) gives the following charges for pupils in the schools of Lynn, Massachusetts, in 1702: "Reading—two pence per week, writing and ciphering—three pence, Latin—six pence." Newtown, according to the same author, charged four pence a week for ciphering. Judging from the amount of money paid for it, one concludes that arithmetic was in public estimation the least of the school subjects.

In New Netherlands and New Amsterdam, colonies founded principally on commercial enterprise, the status of arithmetic as a school subject seems to have been approximately the same as in New England. The early Dutch schools were dominated by the religious element even more strongly than those of colonial New England. They were all of the parochial type and were controlled almost exclusively by the *Classis* * of the mother country. The elementary school of New Netherlands was a public-parochial school, admitting both boys and girls, teaching them manners, morals, religion, reading, writing, and a meager portion of arithmetic. In the curricula of the eight villages, excluding New York, arithmetic appeared in but two cases: Albany in 1721 and Flatbush in 1773. In the latter a stipulation was made to the effect that the subject be taught the child only if he himself desired it. Evidently, there was very little arithmetic taught in the early Dutch schools. Some exceptions may, however, be cited. In New York and Albany, which were im-

* This was an organization of local churches, which had besides the right of appointing ministers, also the supervision and control of school affairs.

portant commercial centers, the subject was taught in its practical aspects. In non-commercial and outlying villages it was not considered important and was generally neglected. Hence, even the Dutch, who had produced some of the most prominent commercial centers of Europe, regarded the study of arithmetic only for its practical value and made it a part of the curriculum only where the demands of trade made it desirable. Like the aristocracy of Europe, the Dutch colonists believed the subject devoid of general educational significance. (6)

Plantation life in the southern colonies made public education impossible; consequently, the education of the masses was practically neglected. Only those who were able financially to employ private tutors were educated, and in most cases this instruction aimed to prepare students for college and higher studies. Arithmetic was, therefore, not included in this type of training.

After the middle of the Eighteenth century the study of arithmetic seems to have become gradually more popular in all American schools. In 1745 Yale made it a college requirement; Harvard did likewise in 1760. This recognition on the part of the colleges necessitated the teaching of arithmetic in the Latin or Grammar schools, and subsequently on even the elementary level. Both Massachusetts and New Hampshire, in 1789, made it, together with reading and writing, one of the compulsory subjects in the curriculum of the common or public schools. The publication of arithmetic texts both in this country and in England, during the latter part of the century also indicates a growing interest in the subject. At the close of the Revolutionary War, it had succeeded in gaining a place of foremost importance in the schools.

Arithmetic texts by American authors date back to 1729, the year in which Isaac Greenwood published *Arithmetick Vulgar and Decimal; with Applications Thereof to a Variety of Cases in Trade and Commerce.* This book, however, found no place in the schools and was soon forgotten. Similar results befell the texts of Benjamin Dearborn (1782) and Alexander McDonald (1785). Three years later, in 1788, America's most prominent early text in the subject of arithmetic came forth and superseded even the old English favorites, such as, Hodder's, Cocker's, and Dilworth's, which up until then had been popular

in American schools. (8) The next text, published by Nicholas Pike, was entitled: *A New and Complete System of Arithmetic, Composed for the Use of the Citizens of the United States.*

The book is a pretentious volume of 511 pages, of which 408 are devoted to arithmetic and closely related problems, 4 pages are given to plane geometry, 11 to plane trigonometry, 45 to mensuration, 33 to algebra, and 10 to the introduction and conic sections. The book is not a text for elementary school children. It is rather a large treatise representing the maximum content of arithmetic. The following items taken from the table of contents show how much ground Pike attempted to cover:

Pensions in arrears at simple interest.
Extraction of the biquadrate root.
Barter.
Alligation medial.
Of pendulums.
A perpetual almanac.
To find the time of the moon's southing.
Table of Dominical letters according to the cycle of the sun.
To find the year of indiction.
Table to find the date of Easter from the year 1753 to 4199.
To measure a rhombus.
To gauge a mash tub.
The proportions and tonnage of Noah's Ark.

Federal money on the decimal plan, which was established by Congress in 1786, is treated by Pike as something of a curiosity. English money had been our standard and it continued to hold a prominent place in arithmetic texts until the nineteenth century. Besides English and other foreign coins, there were the four varying currencies issued by the individual states. The space given by Pike to the converting of money of one colony into that of another colony occupies no inconsiderable part of the book. As Clifton Johnson indicates, "the labor involved in simple business transactions at this period was appalling." (5)

In the tables of weights and measures, one finds wine measure, ale and beer measure in as good standing as all others. Cloth measure, as given by Pike, consist of nails, English and Flemish ells. Long measure begins thus: "Two barley corns make one inch." In dry measure, Pike gives the following: "Two quarts make one pottle; two bushels make one strike; two strikes make one coom; two cooms make one quarter; four quarters make

chaldron; five quarters make one wey; and, two weys make one laft."

Rules are omnipresent throughout the book; in fact, they appear on nearly every page. Many of them are calculated to tax the understanding of the most mature mind.

It is quite interesting to note that a copy of this first widely accepted American text in arithmetic was sent by its author to George Washington. The latter, in acknowledging the gift, says:

SIR:

I request that you will accept my best thanks for your polite letter of the first of January (which did not get to my hands 'till yesterday), and also for the copy of your *System of Arithmetic* which you were pleased to present me. The handsome manner in which that work is printed, and the elegant manner in which it is bound are pleasing proofs of the progress which the arts are making in this country. But I should do violence to my own feelings if I suppressed an acknowledgment of the belief that the work itself is calculated to be equally useful and honorable to the United States.

It is but right to apprise you, that diffident of my own decision, the favorable opinion I entertain of your performance is rather founded on the explicit and ample testimonies of gentlemen confessedly possessed of great mathematical knowledge, than on the partial and incomplete attention I have been able to pay to it myself. But I must be permitted to remark that the subject holds a higher rank in the literary scale than you are disposed to allow. The science of figures, to a certain degree, is not only indispensably requisite for every walk of civilized life, but the investigation of mathematical truths accustoms the mind to method and correctness in reasoning, and is an employment peculiarly worthy of rational beings. In a cloudy state of existence in which many things appear precarious to bewildered research, it is here that the rational faculties find a firm foundation to rest upon. From the higher ground of mathematical and philosophical demonstration we are insensibly led to far nobler speculations and sublime meditations.

I hope and trust that the work will prove not less profitable than reputable to yourself. It seems to have been conceded on all hands, that such a system was much wanted. Its merits being established by the approbation of competent judges. I flatter myself at the idea of its being an American production, and the first of the kind which has appeared, will induce every patriotic and liberal character to give it all the countenance and patronage in his power. In all events you may rest assured, that as no person takes more interest in the encouragement of American genius, so no one will be more highly gratified with the success of your ingenious, arduous, and useful undertaking, then he, who has unfeigned pleasure to subscribe himself with esteem and regard

Sir, Your Most Obed't and very H'ble Servant,

GEO. WASHINGTON.

Pike's book was immediately adopted and, for more than five years, it was retained as a textbook in the public schools of New England. Although this first prominent book in arithmetic served as a basis for all future work, it was too cumbersome to be followed by textbook makers. Instead of such huge tomes, the tendency soon ran to the other extreme, and the next book on arithmetic published by an American author contained but 105 pages. This text was written by Erastus Root and was entitled *Introduction to Arithmetic* (1796). In the preface, the author says that the subject of arithmetic has for a long time been exhausted and that he aims only at furnishing the common schools with an "easy, accurate, and cheap volume containing all the arithmetical knowledge necessary for the farmer or mechanic." In the same place, Root justifies his complete omission of fractions on the ground that they are not absolutely necesssary. "Common sense," he declares, "demands that we cultivate necessaries before conveniences."

The bulk of the content in Root's text is devoted to a treatment of the fundamental operations. Each process is taken first singly and then in its compound form. The following is a problem in compound division taken from the author's book:

> The state of Connecticut sold their western lands for one million two hundred thousand dollars. What is each person's share, reckoning the number of inhabitants in the state at two hundred forty thousand?

Many of the exercises throughout the book are very abstract. Practically no problems of a concrete nature are included.

Another interesting text on the subject that appeared during this early period is Jacob Willete's *The Scholar's Arithmetic,* published in 1817. The author of this book makes no pretense of introducing something new. In his preface he says that his main purpose is to collect the very best from the arithmetics published previous to his own; to reduce the number of arithmetical rules, and to state them as clearly, as concisely, and as simply as possible. From an examination of the text, it becomes very evident that the author purposes thoroughness as his goal. At the end of each main topic, the author gives a list of questions on the subject matter covered. Some of the questions that follow the section on numeration, and the four fundamental operations are listed below:

(1) What is arithmetic? (2) How many principles are there in arithmetic? (3) What does numeration teach? (4) How should we place figures to be added and wherein is particular care necessary? (5) How is addition proved? (6) In subtraction what is the greater number, the less one, and the difference called? (7) How are numbers to be placed in subtraction? (8) When the lower figure is larger than the one above, what is to be done? (9) What are the names of the terms in multiplication? (10) How is multiplication used?

As in earlier texts, rules and definitions are found on almost every page of the book. Most of these early texts proceeded from the abstract to the concrete. Memory was emphasized as almost the sole factor in learning. Generally each rule was supposed to be first memorized and then applied in some example. Sometimes these rules were introduced by means of rimes and jingles. The following given by Breslich (1) concerns the process to be employed in finding the cube root. It is labeled: "A Rule to Get by Head."

> The cube of your first period take
> And of its root a quotient make;
> Which root into a cube must grow,
> And from the period taken fro';
> To the remainder then you must
> Bring down another period just.

Space does not permit listing every topic that appeared in these early texts. Many of the terms used, however, are no longer common in arithmetical parlance. A brief explanation of these, therefore, seems imperative.

Notation and Numeration includes the reading and writing of both Arabic and Roman numerals. This has always been a topic of primary importance in arithmetic texts.

Fundamental Operations with Integers are given in most cases in serial order; addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division. Knowledge of addition and subtraction seems to have been taken for granted by some of the early authors, for, in a few instances not even the addition and subtraction tables are given. Most of the early texts provided for a complete memorization of the fundamental operations before giving any work involving their applications.

Common Fractions formerly bore the name "vulgar." In the early texts the reduction of fractions is given in twelve cases:

(1) reduction to a common denominator; (2) reduction to lowest terms; (3) reduction to a mixed number; (4) reduction to an improper fraction and inverse; (5) reduction of a compound to a simple fraction; (6) reduction of a fraction of one denomination to another, but higher; (7) reduction of a fraction from one denomination to another, but less; (8) reduction of a fraction from one denomination to another value, the numerator being given; (9) same as the above except the denominator instead of the numerator is given; (10) reduction of a mixed number to a single; (11) to find the proper quantity of a fraction in the known parts of an integer; (12) to reduce any given quantity to the fraction of any greater denomination of the same kind.

Decimals are fractions in which the denominator is some part of ten, usually not expressed but signified by a point placed at the left of the numerator. This topic received very little emphasis before the establishment of federal money in 1786. Pike treats the subject somewhat extensively; Willete gives it even more attention.

Denominate or Compound Numbers appear in a great variety in the earlier texts. This is probably due to the fact that weights and measures at that time were not yet standardized. Each country had its own system and in many of the texts the tables of denominate numbers are given as follows:

Long Measure

3 barley corns make	1 inch
4 inches make	1 hand
12 inches make	1 foot
3 feet make	1 yard
6 feet make	1 fathom
5 yards and a half	1 rod, pole, or perch
40 poles	1 furlong
8 furlongs	1 mile
3 miles	1 league
60 miles	1 degree

Cloth Measure

20 inches and a quarter	1 nail
4 nails	1 qr. of a yard
4 quarters	1 yard
3 quarters of a yard	1 Flemish ell
5 quarters of a yard	1 English ell

Land Measure

9 sq. feet	1 yard
30 yards and a quarter	1 pole
40 poles in length and 1 in breadth	1 rood
4 roods	1 acre

Liquid Measure—Wine Measure

2 pints	1 quart
4 quarts	1 gallon
10 gallons	1 anchor of brandy or rum
18 gallons	1 runlet
31½ gallons	1 barrel
42 gallons	1 tierce
63 gallons	1 hogshead
84 gallons	1 puncheon
2 hogsheads	1 pipe or butt
2 pipes	4 tun

Winchester Measure

2 pints	1 quart
4 quarts	1 gallon
8 gallons	1 firkin of ale
9 gallons	1 firkin of beer
2 firkins	1 kilderkin
4 firkins	1 barrel
1 barrel and a half	1 hogshead of beer

Dry Measure

2 pints	1 quart
2 quarts	1 pottle
2 pottles	1 gallon
2 gallons	1 peck
4 pecks	1 bushel
8 bushels	1 quarter of corn (8)

Tables of foreign countries and even of cities are given in some cases. Spain, Italy, France, Portugal, Florence and Venice in Italy, Frankfort, Antwerp, Brussels, Rotterdam, and Hamburg, all in Germany; the British dominions in America, the West Indies, Ireland, Denmark, and Stockholm in Sweden are a few of the places whose currencies are included in the early texts.

Reduction consists of rules for reducing all compound numbers through all the operations. It was a very popular topic in the Colonial arithmetic curriculum.

The Rule of Three, known at present as proportion, was re-

garded as "The Golden Rule" in all arithmetic texts prior to 1834. Three cases are generally given for this rule; (1) The single or direct rule of three: Three numbers are given to find a fourth that has the same proportion to the third as the second has to the first. (2) The single rule of three inverse: Three numbers are given to find a fourth which has the same proportion to the second as the third has to the first. (3) The double rule of three: This requires two or more statings by simple proportion and that whether direct or inverse. This case is commonly composed of five numbers to find a sixth, which if the proportion be direct, must bear the same relation to the fourth and fifth as the third bears to the first and second; but, if inverse, the sixth number must bear such proportion to the fourth and fifth as the first bears to the second and third. For centuries this rule was the basis of all the rules for solving problems arising in business.

Barter is an arithmetical rule for computing the value of different commodities. Its application involves problems somewhat like this: How much corn at 35s. per cwt. must be bartered for 4½ cwt. of dried peaches at 5d. per lb.? Problems of this sort appear frequently in the texts published prior to the establishment of federal money in 1786.

Fellowship, a rule for dividing profit and loss among partners, is more commonly known today as "partnership." It was formerly a very popular topic in arithmetic texts. Within recent years its treatment has been considerably reduced.

Alligation is a rule relating to the solution of problems concerning the compound or mixing of different ingredients or of ingredients of different values. It is of two kinds: (1) Medial, which consists in finding the price or quality of a mixture of several simple ingredients whose separate prices and qualities are known. (2) Alternate, which consists in finding the amount of each of several simple ingredients whose prices and qualities are known, which will be required to make a mixture of a given price or quality. Both types are treated in practically all arithmetic texts before 1834. It appears less frequently after that time and is found in none of the more recent texts.

Position consists in approximating the value of an unknown quantity, corrected by calculating therefrom the value of some

known quantity. For example: "Mr. A. walked into the fourth grade one morning and said: 'Good morning, you 100 pupils.' One of them replied: 'We are not 100, but our number, and the number again, and its half, and its fourth, and one more, make 100.' How many pupils were in that fourth-grade?"

Duodecimals are numbers whose denominations rise in series of twelves instead of tens as in our decimal system. As a topic in arithmetic texts it seems to have been somewhat of a curiosity. It is found in but one of the most popular arithmetics between 1788 and 1858.

Evolution is a term applied to the process of extracting the roots of numbers. It formerly involved the extraction of roots as far as the fourth. In all of the early texts the subject is treated as a separate topic, apart from its real applications. Modern arithmetics have eliminated the extraction of the biquadrate and cube roots.

Involution is the process of raising a quantity to any assigned power. It has never occupied much attention in textbooks. It does not appear at all in the texts of today.

Mensuration includes the finding of areas, and the measuring of capacities and volumes. It has become progressively more popular and at present occupies a considerable place in arithmetic texts.

Exchange deals with the rate or price per unit at which the currency of one country is exchanged for that of another country. It was a very important topic before the standardization of coins.

Practica is a very complex method of performing multiplication by means of aliquot parts in cases where one or both quantities are expressed in several denominations. For example: finding the value of a number of articles at so many pounds, shillings, and pence each; or of so many hundredweight, pounds, and ounces at so much a hundredweight.

Tare and Trett are rules for making allowances in weights of merchandise. Tare allows for the weight of the container, trett is an allowance for waste matter, dust, and the like which might deduct from the true weight of the article. These rules were prevalent in the early texts when trade and commercial transactions were relatively simple. Today they are obsolete topics.

Permutation and Combination refers to the process of finding

the different ways in which a number of things can be varied in their position. It is determined by beginning with unity and multiplying by the successive terms of the natural series 1, 2, 3, and so on, until the highest multiplier shall express the number of individual things. The last product indicates the number of possible changes. For example, in attempting to determine how many changes can be made in the arrangement of 5 grains of corn, all of different colors, the process would be as follows: 1x2x3x4x5=120 possible changes in the arrangement of the 5 grains of corn. Problems of this kind are frequently found in the mental arithmetics of the early nineteenth century. The topic is today little more than a curiosity.

Percentage as a separate topic does not appear in Pike's text, although he does treat the applications thereof such as interest, discount, profit and loss. The sign (%) is not used in arithmetic books until around the nineteenth century. Prior to this time the word "per cent" or the abbreviated form "per C." was used.

In this early colonial period of arithmetic development in the American schools, the aims of the subject are not well-defined. The principal aim seems to have been, however, that of utility, or the satisfying of the needs of trade and commerce. The immediate end was complete mastery of the rules and their various applications. Very little opportunity for drill upon the applications was given. "Skill and facility were neither expected nor attempted." (8) Pike, in his immense volume, gives but nine examples for drill in addition and nine in subtraction. Adams has but ten examples on the two operations together.

In spite of the publication of several texts, this early period is known as that of the "Ciphering Book." In other words, texts were not generally used by the pupils themselves. Occasionally the schoolmaster had one and from this he dictated the examples and problems to the class. Much more common in general practice was the use of a ciphering book by both teacher and pupils. Children were not admitted to the study of arithmetic before the age of ten or twelve years. When the pupil had attained this privileged goal in his life he was considered able to learn the subject. A home-made blank book which served the purpose of a ciphering book was then given him. The master usually dictated the sums from a similar book which he had made and used as a child many years before. The pupil was given a sum

and the rule for working it. He was then left alone to seek the solution. After working the example on scrap paper, or sometimes on a slate, he carried the results to the master for approval. If the pupil's work corresponded perfectly with that in the master's ciphering book, it received approval and the pupil was permitted to copy the complete example very neatly into his own book. In some cases, as in that of Davies' Arithmetic, blank spaces are left in the textbooks so that the old ciphering method might be continued. Thus, generation after generation used the same examples. Throughout the entire "Ciphering Book" period, more emphasis was placed upon neatness than upon accuracy.

After 1815, texts became more popular in the classroom and were from this time on placed in the hands of the pupils themselves. Although the introduction of the texts relieved the master of much dictation work, at the same time it often placed him in very embarrassing situations, particularly when he met a problem in the text which he himself could not solve. "Many of the old masters in the 'Ciphering Book' classes were thus deprived of an old stand-by crutch." (8)

Neither the subject-matter of arithmetic nor the method of teaching were intended for young children. In fact, as was mentioned previously, the subject was seldom taught the young child before he reached the age of ten or twelve. Few attempts, if any, were made to make the study of arithmetic easy.

The sixteenth century is known in the history of arithmetic as the "Constructive Period," for during that time a number of important developments and transitions took place. The period from 1788 to 1821 is, however, also one of significance. The study of arithmetic during this time became popular and definite efforts were made to make it practical in its applications to American life. Texts by American authors were published and led to the gradual breakdown of the Ciphering Book method. This period is particularly significant in that it had great influence upon the next.

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A VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE PROJECT IN McBRIDE HIGH SCHOOL

A. NEED FOR VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

The fact that so many and such a wide variety of new textbook material on the subject of Vocational Guidance is being published today is proof enough of the crying need existing for serious consideration by all educators, particularly Catholic educators; only 8 per cent of all Catholic schools have vocational counselors of this compelling but all too often slighted subject.

Let alone this consideration, there is the still more convincing picture of the high school graduate confronted by a situation, the complexity of which, to say the least, bewilders him. The boy and girl graduating from high school today see stretching before them the road to success, but that road cluttered up by a maze of difficulties—the boy not knowing whether to enter law, or advertising, dentistry, or banking; the girl, on the other hand, nonplused by the inviting vocations ranging from librarian to either nursing or beautician. The trouble with the guidance setup in the secondary school of today is that there is no directing signpost guiding these stupefied students on the road to choosing a career, no answer to the all-important question of the graduate regarding life, "WHITHER?" Leaders and authorities in the educational fields, both secular and Catholic, recognize the importance of having an integrated program of guidance in the schools; to my mind, the trouble has been, with the schools, they have been laggards in this all-important work.

B. PURPOSES AND VIEWPOINTS OF GUIDANCE OUTLINED BY SECULAR AND CATHOLIC EDUCATORS

We do not have to go far afield to find indications of the specific purposes and aims of vocational guidance from individuals and from associations alike. According to Koos and Kefauver there are two phases of guidance, the distributive and the adjustive. It is the purpose of the distributive phase "to distribute youth as effectively as possible to educational and vocational opportunities." It is the purpose of the adjustive

phase to "help the individual to make the optimal adjustment to educational and vocational situations."

Kefauver, in another of his works, indicates the seven major objectives of secondary education, and of these seven makes choice of these five objectives which are specifically attained by the use of tests and measurements in Vocational Guidance.

1. Their use aims to help students to discover interests and to form accurate judgments relative to the extent of their abilities in different types of activities.

2. Their use aims to help students select the activities in life in which they will participate and in which there is large promise of success and happiness for them in adult life.

3. Their use aims to help students in planning an educational program which will best prepare them for their chosen activities, giving appropriate recognition to the need of education for the social, recreational, and vocational activities.

4. Their use aims to facilitate the adjustment of students in their activities in and out of school so that they will attain maximum achievement and happiness and not be disturbed by social and personal maladjustments.

5. Their use should make some contribution to the general improvement of education by defining the educational needs of individuals.

The National Vocational Guidance Association, meeting in St. Louis last February, in the report of the Committee on Convention has this to say of guidance:

> In actual practice, the Association collectively and most of its members individually are defining guidance as services which are contributory to the optimum development and social utilization of the individual. They seek first, to assist boys and girls in planning their vocational futures so as to employ their talents to their own and the social advantage, and secondly, such adjustment of the individual to his environment to him as will enable him to make the most of his potentialities for learning and for serving.

A Catholic authority on Vocational Guidance, the Rev. Walter G. Summers, S.J., head of the department of psychology at Fordham University, makes this statement:

> But 3 per cent of the 60 per cent of high school students who are desirous of entering a profession actually land in this field.

Fond parents carve out a flowery field of endeavor for their children as nurses, doctors, or lawyers, whereas these same boys and girls achieve better as bricklayers, seamstresses, carpenters or stenographers.

To say this in other words, men and women, grown now from the boys and girls of the last paragraph, go through life entirely miscast, out of sorts with the world, with never the slightest possibility of having "a song in their heart," for being happy with themselves and with the whole outside world.

It is with such a condition, with these problems vibrant and teeming with life, that teachers and administrators are faced today. Young people, looking out timidly upon the vast troubled sea that is human society, today turn back fearfully, hopefully, to the teachers, the counselors, to the administrators for advice.

As to the 57 per cent who aspired to the professions and have not arrived, what is to be done with them? Are they to be cast out "sans" direction, "sans" counseling, into this seething mass unemployment, this wilderness of disillusioned citizens of today, the potential trouble-makers of tomorrow? Or are they to be studied, tested and guided into the occupation, the vocation for which they are best fitted? I would say very definitely that it is not only our choice but our bounden duty as supervisors and administrators to provide a course of guidance in the Catholic high school.

Recruitment for religious vocations is a problem. Research, thought, discussion will help us with some of the practical phases of that problem. Consideration of the following points, particularly for the religious educator, should be an incentive towards greater efforts today than in the past in the all-important work of recruiting vocations for the religious life. The cry of the Lord, "the laborers are few, pray ye the Lord of the harvest that He send forth laborers into His harvest," is still ringing in our ears and demands serious consideration from vocation counselors in Catholic secondary schools. Consider first that a religious life is a life spent for God's glory, and for Mary's honor; second, that a school produces better Christians, and some perfect Christians; and third, that it is manned by a corps of powerful and disinterested Apostles—and let these considerations be our motivating force in the work of Christian education.

From the above statements relative to the aims and purposes, the needs for vocational guidance, by accepted authorities in the field, we are led to believe that guidance has to do with directing youth into educational and vocational fields which he seems fitted for, as also to adjust the individual to these fields into which he had been directed.

It is with the method and process of vocational guidance, particularly with the method and process of a practical plan in operation, although in a limited way, that I am most concerned in the remainder of this discussion.

This practical plan of guidance, aided by psychological and educational measurements, is being worked out by a class in Tests and Measurements of the department of education of the Graduate School of St. Louis University, with students of William Cullen McBride High School of this city.

C. THE TEST BATTERY

The battery of tests used in this project in Vocational Guidance seem very pretentious at first sight, this impression being due in no small part to the differentiation of test material and to its all-inclusiveness.

The first test administered was the Otis Test of Mental Ability, which had for its prime purpose to establish very proximately the Intelligence Quotient of the students being tested. I say proximately advisedly, for, although the school had a record of I.Q.'s, these were established some four years previously, and as far as I recall, their only reason for existence was for use in filling out transcripts for students continuing on to college. The two most cogent reasons for use of the intelligence in the test battery are these: (1) they predict probable achievement of the pupil in school, or help to indicate a needed investigation because of his lack of accomplishment, and (2) these tests predict, to a certain extent, the pupil's probable vocational level. So useful do testing authorities deem the Test of Mental Ability that if school administrators were to retain but one type of test of guidance it would be the intelligence test.

The Iowa High School Achievement Test followed next in order, its purpose being to definitely adjudge mastery in the more common subjects of the curriculum, such as English, History and

Mathematics. Besides adjudging mastery, the Achievement Test is valuable for predicting future success in these subjects and to indicate present learning difficulties. In the parlance of the educationist, the student's A.Q., or accomplishment quotient, was established. Up to the present, secondary school teachers have made use of the achievement test solely for marking, overlooking the value for vocational guidance of such tests. It is hoped that this type of test will be entered into the regular high school schedule of testing for guidance purposes.

Succeeding this test, special aptitudes were tested for by the following accepted authoritative tests, all validated measures of special abilities. Aptitude, or prognostic tests, without a doubt offer the best possibilities for predicting success in a special subject. Although it is a mooted question as to whether or not special aptitudes exist, it is still possible to construct tests which will predict success in some subjects better than the Intelligence Test. Whether or not these tests measure special trait or not is of little concern. The important thing is that such tests actually give the best prediction of achievement. Mechanical ability was prognosticated by the Detroit Mechanical Aptitude Test; the flair for the artistic in painting and drawing was tested by the A. S. Lewerenz Test in Fundamental Abilities of Visual Art, as well as by the Meier-Seashore Art Test. Special aptitude for the musical was in turn examined by the Seashore Music Test, as was the scientific ability by the Zyve's Stanford Scientific Test.

The second half of the test-battery was concerned with discovering additional objective facts relative to the personality traits of the students. For determining the aggressive or recessive traits of the students, Allports Ascendance-Submission Test was administered, the value of which examination lay in describing the aggressive or submissive adjustment of a pupil to his associates and to a diversity of social situations.

This test was in turn followed by the Clark University Revision of Thurstone's Personality Schedule, the merit of which test is to evaluate the individual in terms of emotional adjustment or maladjustment. This type of test is highly diagnostic of social attitudes. A program of guidance which would totally neglect these would be deficient in that it would not be party to

information on the attitudes and character traits developing in the adolescent in the high school. Training for character is second only to adjustment of the student to his social, moral and ethical codes and should therefore find place in the vocational guidance program.

Our measurement schedule had to do next with occupational interests, and for this purpose we used E. K. Strong's Vocational Interest Blank. The purpose of this test is to indicate the extent to which students' interests correspond to the interests of the various occupational groups. Of the possible thirty-two occupations for which the test can be scored, we had the students choose but ten. Types of interest sampled by the Vocational Interest Blank of Strong ranged from the students' liking, disliking or being indifferent to a wide array of occupations, amusements, school subjects, and activities, to the matter of the pupil's attitudes toward the peculiarities and characteristics of people.

The socio-economic status of the student was decided by means of Sims' rating scale and concluded the gamut of tests in the battery. This test had for its concern to examine the orientation of the students to their cultural and financial background, and to understand the conditions existing in the home relative to college continuance.

D. SELECTION OF STUDENTS FOR THE PROJECT

It may be of interest to the group to know who were the subjects of this thorough measurement, and on what basis a selection was made of students. The subjects, or, more properly, the objects of this vocational guidance project, were twelve senior high school students from McBride High School of St. Louis. The number was limited so as to restrict the expense, but especially to get as true a cross-section of the 1936 seniors of the school as is possible, and to give them individual guidance. With these objectives in mind, four students were chosen for the project from the upper third, four more from a median group, and the last four from the lowest third of the 132 seniors in attendance at the school. Another purpose of the project was to demonstrate the allocation of the levels of the groups to their own particular vocations or walks in life, the ability-achievement levels attained in these tests purposing or entailing guidance, for professional and technical schools, business, trade or manual training schools.

E. ADMINISTRATION OF THE TEST BATTERY

Relative to the actual administration of the test battery, this briefly was the method followed. Group tests were given to the group and individual tests to the individual. Tests were ordinarily scheduled at an hour following the regular time-table of every-day classes at McBride, although in several cases, due to unforeseen circumstances interfering, special arrangements had to be made as to time. This time allotment depended entirely on the length of time consumed in completing an individual test. Since I was at the school I administered the entire battery of tests and the remainder of the class in Tests and Measurements scored them. All profiles were likewise made by the class.

F. ANALYSIS OF PROFILES

All scores obtained, whether for general ability, for achievement, or for any of the special aptitudes, together with the ratings of personality and occupational interests, were changed to percentiles for a comparative basis. Several purposes may be designated for this comparative study of the various forms established in the tests: (1) a relationship between aptitudes and general abilities, and the occupational interests of the students had to be established; (2) a comparative analysis of personality ratings with relation to occupational proclivities had to be determined. A third reason for the study was to note any specialization of ability or achievement on the part of any individual taking the tests, a condition not entirely to be unexpected, in view of the fact that four of the students tested were from the upper third of their class. The fourth and final purpose in studying the profiles comparatively was to remark the relation of the socio-economic status of the students to actual aptitude and to their occupational interest and choice. Here disparity might be found, for it does not follow, as night the day, that high social standing means mental ability and achievement of a superior type, nor that pupils of a medium or the lower stratum of society are, by the very fact, excluded from the possibility of excellent achievement.

G. DISPOSITION OF EACH CASE STUDY

Immediately following the analysis of the profiles of the twelve students, the project will be concluded by a detailed and compre-

hensive analysis by the class of each individual, his aptitudes and possibilities. Each subject will receive the conclusions of the group in a round-table conference with the members of the class in tests and measurements. This advice will constitute his guidance, and will be given in the presence of the group who constitute the board of counsellors. Since the project is still in process, the guidance of the students tested is incomplete, but by the end of the second semester of this year we feel confident that these students cooperating in this guidance program will know more of their capabilities, their chances of success in certain fields or the foolishness of following certain vocations or occupations for which they are not fitted. May we suggest the adoption in a limited form of this guidance project in the senior year of our Catholic high schools here in the city of St. Louis. Make guidance a live issue, resurrect it from its burying cloth of desuetude, and let tests and measurements be the magic words which will cause this resurrection.

In conclusion I might say that we should not expect any form or system of tests and measurements to be the "open sesame" of all our educational guidance difficulties. I wish to stress the point that once you have gathered and correlated all the results, studied the profiles—in other words, after you have all the results from examinations, use sound common sense and experience in interpreting them, for they are but objective facts covering a wide range of different abilities and interests. They are but a mere means to an end, restricted to special needs in the problem of guidance.

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EDUCATIONAL NOTES

AMERICAN EDUCATION WEEK PROGRAM FOR CATHOLIC SCHOOLS

A program for the participation of Catholic schools in American Education Week, to be observed November 9 to 15, has been issued in pamphlet form by the Department of Education, National Catholic Welfare Conference.

The subjects to be considered each day are: Monday, "Restoration of Religion in Education"; Tuesday, "Catholic Action for Catholic Education"; Wednesday, "World Peace"; Thursday, "A New Social Order"; Friday, "The Catholic Press"; Saturday, "Preparental Training"; and Sunday, "The Church and Youth."

The pamphlet contains excerpts from suggested readings for each day of the week and appends in each case a number of reference works. Notable among these suggested readings are the Encyclicals of His Holiness Pope Pius XI on Christian Education, Christian Marriage, Reconstructing the Social Order, Catholic Action; Official Attitude of the Catholic Church on Education; Appeals for Peace of Pope Benedict XV and Pope Pius XI.

Among suggested questions for discussion are: "For what reasons has the Catholic Church established a separate system of schools?" "Why does religious education prepare one for a full and complete citizenship?" "Discuss the need and value of Catholic higher education." "Name ways and means by which schools may promote international good will." "Explain how the Catholic press is promoting the cause of Catholic education." "What means are available for students to continue their Catholic education after they graduate from school?" "What part could Catholic Action play in solving economic problems?" "Discuss the activities of any Catholic youth organization."

CATHOLIC BIBLE ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA FORMED

Marking one of the important results of the National Catechetical Congress of the Confraternity of Christian Doctrine, held in New York, October 4-6, a Catholic Biblical Association of America was formed in the session devoted to the work, now under way, of revising the language of the Douai-Rheims English New Testament.

The Association was formed for the purpose of expediting this work. It will be open to all interested in the Scriptures and will cooperate with the regular revision committee.

Marked progress by the two committees appointed to revise the language of the New Testament and to study the proposed changes in the Catechism was reported at the Catechetical Congress. The work of both committees is being carried out under the direction of the Episcopal Committee of the Confraternity, composed of the Most Rev. Edwin V. O'Hara, Bishop of Great Falls, chairman, and the Most Rev. John T. McNicholas, O.P., Archbishop of Cincinnati, and the most Rev. John Gregory Murray, Archbishop of St. Paul.

Officers of the new Biblical Association were elected and a Constitution and By-Laws adopted at the session of the Congress on the Scripture revision work. The following were selected:

The Rev. Edward A. Arbez, S.S., of the Sulpician Seminary, Washington, president; the Rev. William L. Newton, of St. Mary's Seminary, Cleveland, vice-president; the Rev. William J. McGarry, S.J., of Weston, Mass., vice-president; the Rev. Edward Donze, S.M., of the Marist Seminary, Washington, corresponding secretary; the Rev. John Rowan, of St. Charles Seminary, Overbrook, Pa., executive secretary, and the Rev. Dr. John E. Steinmuller, of the Huntington, L. I., Seminary, treasurer.

Bishop O'Hara presided at the meeting, which was attended by 15 members of the revision committee, meeting for the first time as a group. With 25 other theologians they spent hours reviewing the work which has been accomplished so far. Their deliberations were directed by Father Newton, secretary of the committee, and Father Arbez, who is general editor of the revision.

Father Newton described the two major purposes of the newly formed Biblical Association as, first, "to place at the disposal of the Bishops a group of biblical scholars to work out questions on Sacred Scripture," and, secondly, "to afford an opportunity for those interested in Scripture to advance their knowledge of it."

At another important meeting held in the course of the congress the Study of the Baltimore Catechism Committee discussed its findings. The committee is composed of 150 theologians who have been working on the project since last November.

Archbishop McNicholas presided at this session, which was

attended at various times by more than 100 members of the Hierarchy and clergy and lasted 10 hours. The discussion was led by the Rev. Francis J. Connell, C.SS.R., of Esopus, N. Y.

STUDY OF COMMUNISM IN CATHOLIC SCHOOLS IS PLANNED BY ARCHBISHOP

A study of the tenets of Communism in the higher grades of the parochial schools and in the high schools of the Archdiocese of Baltimore is planned by Archbishop Michael J. Curley.

The Archbishop announced this intention to the 1,000 teaching Sisters and Brothers gathered in Baltimore for the annual Teachers' Institute of the Archdiocese. He said that he would instruct the Rev. Dr. John I. Barrett, Archdiocesan Superintendent of Schools, to prepare pamphlets for the study, adding it is his desire that Catholic youth know what Communism is and the evil it fosters and thus be in a position to answer questions that may be put to them on the subject.

His Excellency told the Catholic teachers that Communism is no laughing matter and that it seeks the destruction of Church and country. He cited the atrocities in Spain and Russia committed by Communists, saying that many of the things he related he had heard from the lips of priests and prelates who had witnessed the horrors.

The sessions of the Teachers' Institute were held in the Seton High School Auditorium, September 25 and 26. The program included a series of lectures on Methods in Teaching Religion, The Reading Process, Psychology of the Child, The Catholic Social Movement, and Supervision.

The speakers were Rev. Aloysius J. Heeg, S.J., Loyola University, Chicago; Miss M. Theresa Wiedefeld, Supervisor of Elementary Schools, State of Maryland; Rev. Dr. Paul Campbell, Diocesan Superintendent of Schools, Pittsburgh, Pa.; Rev. Dr. Paul Hanly Furfey, The Catholic University of America; Dr. Angela M. Broening and Miss Olive A. Whildin, Baltimore.

Rev. Dr. Barrett, Archdiocesan Superintendent of Schools, who presided over the sessions of the Institute, was greatly pleased with the results.

SURVEY OF THE FIELD

A complete Catholic Youth Movement for the Archdiocese of New Orleans was launched by the Most Rev. Joseph F. Rummel,

Archbishop of New Orleans, with appointment by him of the Rev. Sidney J. Skiffington as Archdiocesan Spiritual Director of the organization and appointment of the clergy personnel of the city central council which automatically becomes part of the archdiocesan board. Archbishop Rummel is honorary president of the organization. The Catholic Youth Organization of New Orleans, which will be known as the CYONO, is being sponsored by the Pastors with the active cooperation of the Holy Name society. This division will be for boys from the ages of 12 to 15 and young men from 16 to 25. The set-up for girls will be undertaken soon and will be under the sponsorship of the Pastors with the cooperation of the Archdiocesan Union of Parish Sodalities. . . . The Rev. Dr. Edward B. Jordan, acting dean of the Catholic Sisters College, and associate professor of Education at the Catholic University of America, has been elevated to the rank of Domestic Prelate with the title of Right Reverend Monsignor. Announcement of the honor conferred upon Dr. Jordan was made by the Most Rev. Thomas C. O'Reilly, Bishop of Scranton. . . . In order to stress for the Catholic youth of America the ruin that follows in the wake of "Red Rule," *The Catholic Boy*, national Catholic youth magazine, has initiated an essay contest on Communism in which more than $200 in cash prizes are offered. Sponsoring a new Catholic youth organization called Catholic Actioneers, *The Catholic Boy* presents the essay contest as the first of a series of activities by this group. It is open to all Catholic boys and girls in the United States between the ages of 10 and 18. . . . The Rt. Rev. Msgr. Bernard J. Bradley, president of Mount St. Mary's College, Emmitsburg, Md., died in Providence Hospital, Washington, September 21, at the age of 69. Monsignor Bradley, who was head of the historic Maryland college for over a quarter of a century, was born at East Braintree, Mass., and attended Mount St. Mary's, graduating in 1886. He was ordained in the Diocese of Brooklyn in 1892 and two years later was assigned to Mount St. Mary's as an instructor. Monsignor Bradley was named treasurer of the college in 1897 and became vice-president in 1901. He succeeded to the presidency in 1911. He was named a domestic prelate in 1914. . . . Rev. John P. Thillman, C.S.C., 74, died October 5 at St. Joseph's Hospital, South Bend, Ind. He was one of the five pioneers of the Congregation of Holy Cross who went to Port-

land, Ore., in 1902 and founded the now flourishing University of Portland. Returning from there, Father Thillman served for a few years as pastor of Sacred Heart Church on the Notre Dame campus. His last assignment before retiring to the infirmary was as chaplain for Reed's Memorial High School, Evansville, Ind. . . . The title, Officer of the Academy, has been conferred upon the Very Rev. Louis J. Gallagher, S.J., president of Boston College, by the Educational Department of the French Government, it has been learned here.

LECTURE ON JUSTINE WARD REVISED EDITIONS—PITTSBURGH, PA.

At a meeting held in St. Mary's High School Auditorium, Pittsburgh, Pa., Saturday, October 24, the Sisters of the Diocese, both Grade and Music teachers were addressed on the subject of the Revised Editions of the Justine Ward Method, by Edmund M. Holden, who represented Mrs. Justine B. Ward.

The meeting was presided over by Rev. Paul E. Campbell, D.D., Litt.D., Superintendent of Parish Schools, Pittsburgh, Pa.

In his talk Mr. Holden stressed the fact that music is an important element in the child's education and not a mere relaxation—or entertainment. Hence rote methods were not good enough for our children. The Method aims to bring the child into close contact with music, to use it in as many ways as possible, to express himself in it to play with it. Hence there is no necessity for songs as such, especially in the early stages, those that are included being rather a propitiation to adult taste.

The new Rhythmic Gestures were explained and demonstrated. The child must first feel rhythm, and the only way to have him do so is through gestures such as the four forms of Rhythmic Movements contained in the New Editions.

The other exercises were taken up in turn. Particular stress was laid on the lesson plan, the general principles of which were given along with examples of successful lesson plans.

Mr. Vincent Shields, representing The Catholic Education Press, Publisher of the Ward Method Books and Charts, brought out in response to a question that to date the First Year Revised Edition and the Second Year Revised Edition have appeared, the Third Year Revised Edition is expected within the year, while the Music Fourth Year, Gregorian Chant, will remain in its present form.

Modern Public Education: Its Philosophy and Background, by Isaac Doughton, A.M., Ph.D. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1935. Pp. xx+729.

The author of this volume has undertaken to "integrate the history and philosophy of public education into one treatment, with the major emphasis on philosophy." In so doing he has followed a procedure recommended by several leading educators who have emphasized the necessity of studying modern educational theory and practice in the light of the lessons of the past. The great German Catholic educational philosopher, Willmann, was one of strongest advocates of this method. He censured the German philosophers of his day for their neglect of what Leibniz called the *philosophia perennis* and warned his contemporaries in the field of education not to repeat their error by attempting to construct a philosophy of education without reference to the past. Despite the value of such a study, however, there is always the danger that the student may reverse the process and proceed to interpret the history of education in terms of the philosophy he has already accepted. This, it seems to the reviewer, is precisely what the author of the present volume has done. He is, as he repeatedly tells us, committed to the philosophy of Pragmatism and he views the whole history of education from the standpoint of a pragmatic observer. Whatever in the past, by any stretch of the imagination, may be interpreted as favoring this conception is approved, at times, of course, with reservations; whatever does not fit in with it is rejected forthwith. The author's mentor is, as we might expect, Dewey; and although he assures us his work is not intended to be an official exposition of the latter's philosophy, it is certainly an unofficial one. This pragmatic bias detracts a great deal from the value of Dr. Doughton's work, which, despite its verbose style, one would otherwise be inclined to recommend as a good presentation of the forces that have served to mold American educational thought. As it stands, however, there is too much emphasis on the scientific method and the child-centered point of view, on the naturalistic and biological conception of education, on experimentation and social change. American education has undoubtedly been influenced deeply by

the philosophy which Dr. Doughton champions so valiantly; but other philosophical currents to which he pays slight heed have not been without their effect. There are other "Molders of the American Mind" besides Dewey and his school; and we have not yet reached the point where we can speak of *the* philosophy of American Education, even of American Public Education. The American people are not all committed to the philosophy of Pragmatism. Hence they will not all accept this author's views on the rejection of authority, the social origin of morals, the meaning of the supernatural, the "toleration" of private schools, and a number of other moot questions in the field of education.

EDWARD B. JORDAN.

Gone with the Wind, by Margaret Mitchell. New York: the Macmillan Company, 1936. Pp. 1,037. $3.00.

Notices of fiction are unusual in the CATHOLIC EDUCATIONAL REVIEW. Is there a reason to make this novel an exception? Yes, indeed, an excellent one, to be discussed later.

Gone with the Wind is a long novel—1,037 pages—that tells without sentimentality a story of cultural alteration, character changes, and tragic life adjustments experienced by the people Margaret Mitchell's imagination had brought to life and actuality in her narrative of north Georgia during and after the Civil War. No, the book never lags. The word interesting glows with a new meaning when applied to it. The supple vigor of the story, with the author's superlative knack of inventing unexpected incidents, keeps the reader alert. The amazing story-telling power of this novel has brought a new artistic perfection to American historical fiction.

The characters and the locale partake of exactly the same valuable newness. Do you remember any other American novel with its scenes in north Georgia? From "Tara," the affluent plantation home of the O'Hara family in Clayton County, less than 25 miles south of Atlanta, the story moves to that city as the Civil War begins. After the catastrophe of Sherman's march to the sea the narrative alternates, during Reconstruction days, from the ruined plantation home in the country to the nervously growing city. Characters of all ages and conditions add sharp, and sometimes boisterous, contrasts throughout the thousand

pages. And from this array of people, all strongly alive, you will remember longest Scarlett O'Hara and Rhett Butler, for *Gone with the Wind* is their story. You will not forget Gerald O'Hara or his wife Ellen, Melanie Hamilton or her husband Ashley Wilkes, the Tarlton twins or the Fontaines, Aunt Pittypat or Will Benteen, or Mammy or Pork or Prissy or Dilcey. The book will make you chuckle and grieve, be depressed and anxious, and you will be heartily satisfied with the delights of an artistic, intellectual, and emotional experience when you have done. From beginning to end Margaret Mitchell has maintained a reality that is as mysterious as life.

Are you wondering why such a novel is brought to your attention here? Because Catholicity is in it, and at the end (except for a few characters) like everything else, like the culture and life of the old South, it is gone with the wind of change. Then comes the insistent query, "Why should that be?" If the answer is to be found, look for it in Bishop Shaughnessy's study published a decade ago, *Has the Immigrant Lost the Faith?* This novel and that treatise are both educational.

Savannah as a diocese was established in 1850. Although he does not come into the narrative, the Rt. Rev. Augustine Verot was Bishop of Savannah at the time of Margaret Mitchell's story. The clergy were not numerous. Yet if Catholicity went with the winds of change at any time in the South, not all the going was due to the laity. The haggard scarcity of priests in some dioceses today, while other sectors of the country are crammed in comparison, is a fact that submits to interpretations as varied now as they were in the 1860s. Bishop Shaughnessy's book, with its conclusions as unexpected as the ending of this exceptional story, will be a tonic to the thoughts of reflective admirers of Margaret Mitchell's novel.

DANIEL S. RANKIN.

International Index of Catholic Biographies, by Stephen J. Brown, S.J., Second Ed., Revised and Greatly Enlarged. London: Burns, Oates and Washbourne. 1935. 10s 6d.

This index, a revision of the *Index of Catholic Biographies,* issued in 1930, has been brought to date and considerably expanded thereby. Although admittedly incomplete it contains

references to 10,000 Catholic biographies, all of which are mentioned in editions issued after 1800. A typical group under St. Thomas Aquinas mentions 30 biographies in English, French, German and Italian with publication dates ranging from 1846 to 1934. There is no alphabetical arrangement of these thirty titles nor are any annotations given. The index has three main parts, respectively devoted to general biographical reference works, to collective biography and to individual biography. An appendix lists pamphlets and publications in series. Every student in the field of biography should become acquainted with this tool.

EUGENE P. WILLGING.

St. Thomas College,
Scranton, Pa.

Social Studies, an Orientation Handbook for High School Pupils, edited by William McAndrew. Little, Brown, and Company, Boston: 1935. Pp. 465.

Social Studies consists of a number of essays written by educators, publicists and lawyers, and it is intended to be read in high schools in order that pupils may understand the purposes and advantages of a high school training and appreciate their opportunities to prepare for good citizenship. Students could easily waste time in studying this volume. However, if a competent teacher gave a series of ten-minute discussions on the various chapters, pupils would profit thereby and comparatively little time would be consumed. The tone is popular, at times slangy, and one is annoyed by such captions as "Mind Teasers" and "Brain Practice" as headings of the list of questions on certain chapters. There is a great deal of valuable advice scattered through the volume on such subjects as health practices, personal hygiene, good citizenship, reading, control of leisure time, development of personality and the like. There is some material of doubtful value, even to the whims and glittering generalities of professional educators. While it is not emphasized, there is a recognition in some of the papers that mass education in America has not developed unimpeachable citizenship in view of our impure politics, crime waves, lack of interest in true democracy, and willingness to accept government bounties and doles of one sort or another. Of religion as a fundamental training for politi-

cal honesty and personal stability, little is said although Charles P. Taft, II, in one of the sounder chapters apologetically maintains, "So I do not hesitate to speak of religion as a practice demanded of you by your community."

Professor Harl Douglass of the University of Minnesota in a rather poorly written essay (in which he confuses Plymouth and Massachusetts Bay) discusses mass education in America, cites Sweden as a model, hopes for much from Russia, advises *The Masses* as a magazine to be read, and maintains the value of education as a ladder to success which is associated too intimately with prominence and the acquisition of wealth. In speaking of the high school as a preparation for home-management, he feels that most children in a few years will be rearing "one or more relatively helpless children." There is slight encouragement for the study of mathematics or the classics but considerable stress is placed on the social sciences throughout this volume: "People used to believe in an unproven theory that the study of foreign languages and high school mathematics was necessary for good college work. Careful investigations have shown this theory to be a myth. College students with no mathematics or with no foreign languages have done just as well in college as others of the same natural intelligence who did not study these subjects in high school. . . . One may enter a great many colleges and universities with no credits in foreign language and, in a small but increasing number, colleges will admit you with one or no years of credit in mathematics above the eighth grade." Make it easy for the pupils, make it interesting, make studies practical. These are the rules. Teachers are to be counsellors, and those "who fail large numbers are marked as inefficient and are not wanted in most schools."

President Frazier of Colorado State Teachers College contributes a reasonable discussion of what high schools can do for their pupils but one can hardly accept his judgment on reading: "There was once a theory that no literature was worth reading unless it was very old; and high school students were kept busy reading books by Homer, Chaucer, Shakespeare, and other writers of long ago. Modern writers were ignored. However, we have discovered in recent years that great literature is being published now, and for this reason boys and girls are learning to read books by modern authors." Again, he observes: "In some

schools a large per cent (sic) of the students study Latin. This is not desirable. Not more than 10 to 15 per cent of the students in an average high school can profit by such study. The same is true of the usual mathematics offered. . . . Don't expect to get much from a college that requires you to waste much of your high school course meeting unintelligent entrance requirements."

Senator Champ Clark contributes a valuable essay on "You as a Citizen," and there are a number of other suggestive but not infallible discussions on "Your Mastering of Your Time," "You and Your Clubs," "You and Your Person" and "You and the Art of Thinking." Mrs. Roosevelt concludes the volume with a few colorless pages on "American Ideals."

The founding fathers are quoted on the general subject of education in a democracy, but it might be added that these men if formally educated were schooled in academies, usually private or denominational, in which severe teachers, proud of their vigorous, even brutal, discipline, taught "the hard subjects" in a hard way and stressed religion, morality, self-reliance and rugged individualism. There was no worry about leisure time, learning to play and fraternal clubs. They learned a good deal of practical civics in town meetings, at debates, and at lectures. They were preparing for the work-a-day world or for entrance into denominational colleges in which mathematics, philosophy, Latin, Greek, ethics, history, and religion were held to train men in scholarship and in personal and public morality.

RICHARD J. PURCELL.

American Fiction, an Historical and Critical Survey, by Arthur Hobson Quinn. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1936. 2 vols. Pp. 805. $5.00.

The emphatic sub-title of this work indicates accurately its purpose and its method. Readers and students who give no heed to an author's design must peel off their mental blinders, discard their sleepy wisdom, and pay strict but cheerful attention to what Professor Quinn has done, if they wish to understand at once the value of this study of American fiction.

All writers of fiction in this country who began publishing their wares after 1920 have been excluded. There must be a satisfac-

tory explanation for this procedure. Here it is. The overwhelming welter of novelists since 1920 would distort the limits and the balance of the study. Naturally the question comes, "What does the learned author treat?" The answer is, "He begins at the beginning, and in thirty-three chapters comes down to 1936." Contemporary writers, provided, of course, they published before 1920, are studied fully, from their first to their latest book.

Professor Quinn had a problem of complicated material, within definite limitations, that he has worked out brilliantly. The glamor of scholarship sustained by a remarkable critical enthusiasm is in evidence through the length of the survey. Here is what you will find in the thirty-three chapters of this work. The preface has its own importance, sustained in the witty introductory chapter, "The Foundations of American Fiction." Our earliest satires and novels of domestic life receive extended attention. The quality and quantity of Charles Brockden Brown's achievement deserves the chapter it receives. After a discussion of his role in establishing the distinctive American romance, there are separate chapters for Irving, Cooper, and Poe. In the pages devoted to "The Development of Idealistic Romance" Catherine Maria Sedgwick and Lydia Maria Child are mentioned, and their importance explained. The significance of this chapter, however, is in the new insight manifested by Professor Quinn when he writes his critical opinion of the output of William Gilmore Simms. Hawthorne and the romance of the moral life cover familiar material with the luster of new enthusiasm, while the strange genius of Melville receives due recognition in the eighth chapter.

The transition to realism manifested its signs as early as the 1850's. Professor Quinn illustrates his understanding of this transition through Harriet Beecher Stowe, John Townsend Trowbridge (a novelist not usually given his proper place in this respect), Holmes, DeForest, Bayard Taylor, Rebecca Harding Davis, and Mrs. Ward. The contribution of this group of writers was the revelation of fictional possibilities in people who had been presumed inarticulate. This realistic treatment of fiction material was accompanied by a new and sharply defined method of treating romance, the method of fantasy, the product of unusual plots, strange characters, and powerful imaginations. "The Fiction of Fantasy" is a delightful chapter.

American writers as illustrious as Bret Harte, Mark Twain, William Dean Howells, and Henry James needed the extensive and detailed criticism they receive in separate chapters of this history. To Weir Mitchell a whole chapter, done with astonishing vigor of critical thinking and incisive writing, does not seem out of proportion.

"Place and Race in American Fiction" gathers many local color novelists into a section of well-developed and original comment that is followed by detailed notice of individuals like Joel Chandler Harris and Francis Marion Crawford. Without doubt the author wrote his chapter, "The Urbane Note in American Fiction," with an intense interest in the group of distinguished novelists he has classified under that title. Who are these special people? Warner, Bunner, Arthur Sherburne Hardy, Henry Harland, and Henry Blake Fuller. "The Development of Realism" is a long chapter with names of varying importance, writers who held up the spiritual, moral, and economic institutions of the country to readers for criticism and awakening. There will be surprised readers of Professor Quinn's history who may wonder why a great deal of space and criticism is given James Lane Allen and Lafcadio Hearn, and why some of the names included in the study of the romance of history and politics have not been allowed more recognition.

In the concluding chapters of this remarkable volume there are five sections devoted to individual authors: Booth Tarkington as the supreme example of the later romance; Edith Wharton, the perfect artist; Anne Douglas Sedgwick, the representative novelist of international relations; Ellen Glasgow, interpreter of the new South; and Willa Cather. There are surprises in the critical deftness of Professor Quinn's appraisal of Miss Cather.

What about the contemporary novelists for whom extravagant praise is pounded out on the typewriters of magazine and newspaper critics? With cool impartiality, the result of his superb knowledge of the whole range and history of American fiction, Professor Quinn deflates the exaggerated estimates of Dreiser, Anderson, and Upton Sinclair. To Sinclair Lewis he is fair, and if standards of artistic and critical taste have a meaning, he has placed the novels of Lewis exactly where future judgment will keep them. "The Celebration of the Individual" is a chapter of illuminating explanation of the work of Mary Austin, Zona Gale,

Dorothy Canfield Fisher, and Susan Glaspell, four novelists whose books emphasize the individual protest against the complexities of modern life.

The significant value of Professor Quinn's study is its plan, its arrangement of chapters to show the literary and artistic development of the whole field of American fiction. People are in their right place. The wonder will be, "Just how did he succeed?" The answer is important and easy. He knows what he is writing about; he is familiar with everything he describes. Contemporary writers are not able to dazzle his calm sense of critical worth.

For the first time in one book the evolution of the American novel and the American short story is found together. Strange, no one ever did this before. It will never be possible to trace the development of American fiction in the future without adhering to Professor Quinn's method. His way gives him the opportunity to show the totality of the work of writers like Page, Wharton, and Sedgwick. What he has done with these writers' literary products has never been tried before: an interpretative scrutiny of their whole literary labor. It is refreshing to discover a critic who is assured that the recent depiction of the backwaters of life is not important. It is encouraging to have an authority say that a great deal of contemporary fiction done with the purpose of exposing injustice is not coherent thinking, not literature in any sense. Professor Quinn's standards of taste and his critical judgment are high, sound, and representative of the best of American scholarship. His new book is a contribution to our cultural possessions and our educational achievements.

DANIEL S. RANKIN.

Books Received

Educational

A Correlated Curriculum. A Report of the Committee on Correlation of the National Council of Teachers of English. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company. Pp. xv+326. Price, $2.00.

Castiello, Jaime, S.J.: *A Humane Psychology of Education.* New York: Sheed & Ward. Pp. xvii+254. Price, $2.50.

Hutchins, Robert Maynard: *The Higher Learning in America.* New Haven: Yale University Press. Pp. 119. Price, $2.00.

Knudsen, Charles W. and McAfee, Lucius O.: *An Introduction to Teaching.* Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday, Doran & Co. Pp. 424. Price, $2.00.

Revlin, Harry N., Ph.D.: *Educating for Adjustment.* New York: D. Appleton-Century Co. Pp. ix+419. Price, $2.25.

Textbooks

Catholic Faith. Based on The Catholic Cathechism as Drawn up by his Eminence Peter Cardinal Gasparri. Book Two. New York: P. J. Kenedy & Sons. Pp. 151. Price, $0.30.

Cox, Ignatius W., S.J.: *Liberty, Its Use and Abuse.* Volume I—Basic Principles of Ethics. New York: Fordham University Press. Pp. 168. Price, $2.00.

Dearborn, Blanche J.: *City Friends.* New York: The Macmillan Company. Pp. 193. Price, $0.72.

Furbay, John Harvey, Ph.D.: *A Workbook for Observation in Practice Teaching.* New York: The Macmillan Company. Pp. 261. Price, $1.50.

Grace, Rev. Richard W.: *A Manual of Christian Doctrine.* Part III of The Triple Catechism. New York: Joseph F. Wagner, Inc. Pp. 289. Price, $1.35.

Haskin, Frederic J.: *The American Government Today.* New York: Grosset & Dunlop. Pp. 470. Price, $1.00.

Stevens, Georgia: *Climbing in Music Land.* New York: The Macmillan Company. Pp. 138.

Watkins, Ralph K., Ph.D. and Bedell, Ralph C., Ph.D.: *General Science for Today.* New York: The Macmillan Company. Pp. 715. Price, $1.72.

General

A Week of Communions. By Lamplighter. New York: Sheed & Ward. Pp. 86. Price, $1.00.

Belloc, Hilaire: *Characters of the Reformation.* New York: Sheed & Ward. Pp. 342. Price, $3.50.

Curtayne, Alice: *Jean-Baptiste Debrabant.* Paterson, N. J.: St. Anthony Guild Press. Pp. 72. Price, $1.00.

Houck, Rev. Frederick A.: *The Palace Beautiful.* St. Louis, Mo.: B. Herder Book Company. Pp. 181. Price, $1.25.

Noyes, Alfred: *Voltaire.* New York: Sheed & Ward. Pp. 643. Price, $3.50.

Sister Mary Eva, O.S.F.: *The Garden Enclosed.* New York: Benziger Brothers. Pp. 188. Price, $1.25.

Sister Miriam Teresa (1901-1927). By a Sister of Charity. New York: Benziger Brothers. Pp. xx+332. Price, $2.00.

The Roman Missal. New York: C. Wildermann, Inc. Pp. 1,637.

The Soul of Elizabeth Seton. A Spiritual Autobiography by a Daughter of Charity of St. Vincent de Paul. New York: Benziger Brothers. Pp. 98. Price, $1.50.

Timmermans, Felix: *The Triptych of the Three Kings.* New York: McFarlane, Warde, McFarlane. Pp. 39. Price, $1.00.

Will, Joseph, S.J., and Hennrich, Kilian J., O.M.Cap. *Catholic Action Handbook.* New York: Joseph F. Wagner, Inc. Pp. 123. Price, $0.50.

Pamphlets

Cox, Rev. Ignatius W., S.J., Ph.D.: *Mother Mary and Mother America.* New York: The Paulist Press. Pp. 30. Price, $0.05.

Cox, Rev. Ignatius W., S.J., Ph.D.: *The Spirit of Quadragesimo Anno.* Supernatural Charity. Brooklyn, N. Y.: International Catholic Truth Society, 407 Bergen St. Pp. 15. Price, $0.10.

Cunningham, Rev. James F., C.S.P.: *Have I a Vocation?* New York: The Paulist Press. Pp. 32. Price, $0.05.

Haskin, Frederic, J.: *Presidents and Their Wives.* Washington, D. C.: The Haskin Information Service. Pp. 47. Price, $0.10.

Haskin, Frederic J.: *The Constitution of the United States.* Washington, D. C.: The Haskin Information Service. Pp. 32. Price, $0.10.

Improper Motion Pictures. Encyclical Letter of Pope Pius XI on Motion Pictures. New York: The Paulist Press. Pp. 24. Price, $0.05.

Keeler, Floyd: *Outside and In.* A gripping story of mental conflict and spiritual conversion. Brooklyn, N. Y.: International Catholic Truth Society. Pp. 32. Price, $0.10.

Malloy, Rev. Joseph I., C.S.P.: *Prayers before and after Communion.* New York: The Paulist Press. Pp. 32. Price, $0.05.